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ABSTRACT

This annual collection contains essays relating to instruction in the basic communication course, grading in the basic communication course, evaluating the basic communication course, and the "state" of the basic communication course. Papers in the collection include: "The Future of the Basic Course" (Judy C. Pearson and Paul Nelson); "Communication Apprehension in the Basic Course: Learning Styles and Preferred Instructional Strategies of High and Low Apprehensive Students" (John Bourhis and Charlene Berquist); "An Investigation into the Communication Needs and Concerns of Asian Students in Speech Communication Performance Courses" (Ester Yook and Bill Seiler); "The Required Course and the Advanced Student: A Placement Perspective" (Michael R. Schliessmann and Laurie B. Haleta); "Beyond Writing: The Case for a Speech-Based Basic Course in a Vid-Oral World" (W. Lance Haynes); "A Communication-Based Model of Friendship for the Interpersonal Communication Course" (Rod Troester); "Some Student Perceptions of Grades Received on Speeches" (Ted J. Foster and others); "A Program of Rater Training for Evaluating Public Speeches Combining Accuracy and Error Approaches" (Nancy Rost Goulden); "Evaluating the Basic Course: Using Research To Meet the Communication Needs of the Students" (Lyn B. Bendtschneider and Douglas M. Trank); "The Basic Course: What Do We Know? What Do We Need To Know? Where Do We Go from Here?" (Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss and David L. Kosloski); and "The Basic Speech Course at United States Colleges and Universities: V" (James W. Gibson and others). (RS)

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Basic Communication Course Annual

CS507386

Lawrence W. Hugenberg
Editor

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Volume II
November, 1990

BASIC COMMUNICATION COURSE ANNUAL

Volume 2
November, 1990

EDITOR
Lawrence W. Hugenberg

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DEDICATION

How I envied that beard. Long, straight, black, with a hint of gray, and dominating.

First impressions, as any speech teacher will tell you, are likely to be lasting ones. My first impression of Norm Watson remains – that beard. This impression was made moments before the commanding, compassionate voice said, "Hi, I'm Norm Watson from the University of South Dakota." A speech voice – and a great beard.

Norm and I met under these circumstances during the first Speech Communication Association of South Dakota annual convention that he attended. It's been a few years since then. Norm's activities in his professional associations were clearly shown during his first weeks in South Dakota. We know Norm's activity in the profession spanned state, regional and national groups. That first day, Norm and I made ties that continue past his death. A few hours with Norm that day opened my eyes to the speech profession. And in those few hours, I gained a friend that I will *never* forget.

Norm "took" me to my first Midwest Basic Course Directors' Conference – at Ames, Iowa. Actually, I drove, but I was really his guest. Our trip that February is etched in my mind – snow, wind, blowing snow and ice. The Amana Colonies Holiday Inn was an oasis to the ice desert travelers. Yet it was an unknown oasis for me, because I had not attended this conference before. A few hours under Norm's tutelage erased all anxiety about the conference and the group. Professional relationships like ours can grow quickly into more than that. Ours certainly did. Though we might not talk to each other for long periods of time, when we did it was as if yesterday had been the last time. When we needed to crowd into hotel rooms which wouldn't give us a rollaway bed, Norm slept on the floor. When mornings brought inadequate motivation, Norm dug into a meticulously packed small suitcase and brought out a coffee pot. (Norm taught me how to pack one bag for a long weekend trip.) Norm found the pier when we wanted lobster.

I doubt my experiences with Norm are unique. Norm Watson made people feel special. It wasn't that he made people feel like they were special speech educators. It was that he made people *feel special*. Each of us who knew Norm know this – that deep down in us is a part of him. Norm seemed to bring this to the surface. He gave for us, to us; and became part of us.

The mind is a betrayer. I can remember the pier, the coffee, the bed on the floor. I can remember Norm as if he were staring back at me. Despite all the speech communication education, words cannot express the memories. There's only a snippet of a thought to convey to those of you who did not know Norm, the kind of person he was.

You can find a part of Norm in his writings. His texts, his papers, all show a concern Norm had for his profession and his students. Norm could attend to the detail of planning a conference, and then write eloquently about teaching students the necessity of involvement in life by thinking critically about their experiences. Norm's legacy to the profession can touch you who did not know him. Norm Watson was primarily instrumental in giving the Basic Course Committee credibility in the Speech Communication Association. That legacy continues with the publication of this *Annual*.

The emptiness was surpassed by grief, which is slowly fading. Sadness still lingers and will, but I sense grief will continue to fade. In time, both will be truly tempered by remembering the "good ol' days." Perhaps they were not that good; but the memories are. At each convention or conference, over coffee or dinner, Norm Watson will be remembered. Dedication to this *Annual* will remind us of Norm, but our personal memories will etch Norm permanently onto us. For I believe his legacy is part of each of us who knew him, and of those who didn't. Those of us who knew Norm share a family spirit in his loss and in his memories.

Our profession and personal loss can only approximate the loss to Norm's true family. To his memory, we dedicate this *Annual* to Norman H. Watson.

Mike Schliessmann
Brookings, South Dakota
July, 1990

Norman H. Watson

1946-1989

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EDITOR'S PAGE

This volume is the result of tremendous dedication and the ongoing belief in the need to provide a publication outlet for research and information dedicated solely to the basic communication course. Many people have contributed their time, energy and talents to this volume. I first want to recognize the excellent work provided by the Editorial Board who worked to meet my deadlines and provide useful feedback to the authors to help them revise and/or resubmit their research. Without excellent cooperation from each of the reviewers, the second *Basic Course Annual* would not be complete.

I would be remiss in not thanking Malcolm Fox and American Press for their continued willingness to support the *Basic Course Annual.* Their willingness to continue their support and publish this edition has hopefully formed the foundation for a long relationship and many years of publishing the *Basic Course Annual.*

Finally I want to thank the Basic Course Committee of the Speech Communication Association for their commitment to the *Basic Course Annual.* There are too many people in the Basic Course Committee to list individually; but I want to let them know that their support is appreciated.

Finally, it was after the original *Annual* went into press that we found out that Norm Watson had passed away. Those who knew him wanted to develop an appropriate tribute for Norm and his work for the basic courses across the country. Our tribute to Norm is this and future volumes of the *Annual.* I know that Norm is looking at the publication of the second *Annual* and is smiling at us; because he was instrumental in soliciting support for this project.

I hope each of you enjoys this volume as much as the readers of the initial volume enjoyed reading it.

Lawrence W. Hugenberg, *Editor*
Youngstown, Ohio
July, 1990

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Judy C. Pearson
Paul Nelson

This article recommends some changes that should occur in the basic course. The prescriptions are based on four notions: the course must include accurate information, it should be inclusive in nature, it must be responsive to our contemporary world and to our student's current and future communicative needs, and it must provide a unique contribution to our student's education. The authors suggest that the course has not been sufficiently attentive to accuracy, inclusiveness, responsiveness and uniqueness; furthermore, contemporary changes require increased vigilance in these areas.

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Charlene Berquist

Students who experience high levels of communication apprehension are at a distinct disadvantage in school when compared to those who do not. This is particularly true in basic courses in public speaking and interpersonal communication *which students may be required to take to satisfy general education requirements. This study examines the relationship between communication apprehension, learning style, and preferred instructional strategies for students enrolled in a basic course in interpersonal communication. The results indicate that communication apprehensive students are more passive than active in their learning styles. Both low and high communication apprehensive students prefer instructional strategies which are consistent with their learning style.*

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Bill Seiler

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Frequent evaluation of student work is standard practice in basic courses. Frequent evaluation assumes a relationship between the evaluation and improved performance. In higher education, evaluations are often expressed as grades. This study examines the relationship between twelve grades *students receive on their speeches, and the affective and motivational effects those grades might have. Generally, the study found that students prefer higher grades, but are motivated by lower grades. Specifically, the study indicates disparity between instructor intention in using pluses and minuses with grades and student reaction to the pluses and minuses.*

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Nancy L. Buerkel-Rothfuss
David L. Kosloski

Research in the basic course in the 1980s was largely atheoretical and limited in generalizability, both inside and outside of speech communication. While there is nothing wrong with an applied approach to teaching and learning, that approach needs to be augmented by more generalizable studies. Research guided by theoretical frameworks or based on prior findings tend to be more valuable than the tendency for basic course directors to search for hypotheses in less systematic ways. The review of literature presented in this paper reveals an extensive typology of basic course variables but no clear framework within which to conduct future research. Several potential theoretical perspectives are described and a research agenda for the 1990s is presented, with a goal toward more systematic, coordinated efforts.

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James W. Gibson
Michael S. Hanna
Greg Leichty

This paper reports the results of a survey undertaken to determine the nature of the basic course in speech as it is now taught at United States colleges and universities, and to identify important trends in instruction of the basic communication course. It appears that enrollment in the basic course is increasing. Findings are also reported concerning the orientation taken in the basic course, along with information on instructional methods used and administrative concerns connected with the basic course. The various implications of the findings are discussed.

Author Identification 258

The Future of the Basic Course

Judy C. Pearson
*Paul E. Nelson**

A boon to the counters of student credit hours, a challenging job for the basic course director, a course of profit for many an author, an ultra conservative force to reformers, a baseless pursuit of skills to the researcher, and a hopeless morass to the theoretician, the basic course continues its bump and grind through the history of the discipline seducing thousands of students with its apparent practicality but disappointing many reformist professors as a hopeless anachronism.

Some of us have been associated with the basic public speaking course all of our professional lives. The two authors have both been basic course directors, written eight fundamentals texts, and taught the beginning course for many years. Long association brings a certain affection for the course and a reluctance to see it change, but in this essay we will face squarely some of the changes to which the basic speech communication course should respond.

Researchers and theorists have spent considerable time considering the history of the basic speech communication course (see, for example, Gray, 1989; Jeffrey, 1964; and Oliver, 1962). Readers who are interested in the past are encouraged to peruse the article by McQuillen and Ivy (1982) who trace the history of the basic course from the 1950's through the 1980's. They conclude that the course has been adaptive to both societal needs and the demands of the educational institution. They summarize that the course moved from the primacy of the written word to the oral mode in the 1940's, began to emphasize public speaking in the early and mid-1960s, and embraced a career focus in the 1970's. More attention appeared to be given to communication theory and interpersonal communication. The course, which was originally taught primarily by senior faculty members, is now principally offered by more junior people largely because of the tremendous growth of the course, often at a rate which exceeded the growth of the particular educational institution.

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* The authors wish to express their appreciation to Jon Hess for his assistance in preparing this article.

Gray (1989) provided another helpful article on the history of the basic course. Her analysis begins by describing a 1954 symposium with the three speech communication professionals: Lewis, Minnick, and Van Dusen. She notes that the three had different goals for the basic course, but that all agreed that the course was probably the only one that students would take and that it therefore needed to focus on the students' essential communicative needs. Gray traces the basic course from the 1950's through the end of the 1980's and notes that the course has changed very little.

Researchers routinely provide articles on the current state of affairs in the basic course. At least 18 articles trace the development of the course through modern times (see, for example, Dedmon, 1965; Dedmon & Frandsen, 1964; Gibson, Gruner, Brooks, & Petrie, 1970; Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Smythe, & Hayes, 1980; Gibson, Kline, & Gruner, 1974; Gibson, Hanna, & Huddleston, 1985; Hargis, 1956; Hayworth, 1936, 1940, 1941 and 1942; Houghton, 1918; Kay, 1917; Pearson, Nelson, & Sorenson, 1981; Seiler, Foster, & Pearson, 1985; Seiler & McGukin, 1989; Sorenson & Pearson, 1981; Trueblood, 1915; and Winans, 1917). These articles, too, show that the more we change, the more we remain the same.

Although the basic course is relatively stable at most institutions, some alterations have been suggested and implemented. For example, a number of delivery systems have been used in the basic course. Some would argue that the basic course has been primarily delivered using a small autonomous section, but other teachers have tried the large lecture (see, for example, Erickson & Erickson, 1979; Gleason, 1986, Hazelton, 1986; Larson, 1986; Pearson, 1986, 1990; Semlak, 1986; and Weaver, 1986) and the personalized system of instruction (PSI; see, for example, Fuss-Reineck & Seiler, 1982; Gray, 1984; Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Thomas, 1987; Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Yerby, 1986; Scott & Young, 1976; Seiler, 1982 and 1983; Seiler & Fuss-Reineck, 1988; Taylor, 1988; and Yerby, Gray, & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987). The PSI appears to be superior to either the lecture-recitation or the autonomous classroom (Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Thomas, 1988; Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Yerby, 1986).

In addition, the teaching personnel has changed in the course. Historically, senior professors taught the basic course. Today, the course is more likely to be taught by junior faculty or graduate teaching associates. While many institutions have used graduate assistants, a more recent development is the use of undergraduates as teaching associates (Baisinger, Peterson, & Spillman, 1984; Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Yerby, 1987). The advantages of using either graduate or undergraduates in these roles include more efficient use of faculty resources, more cost effective instruction, and more personalized instruction for the students. The teaching associates reap both personal and career benefits. Graduate and undergraduate teaching associates may face some problems including less credibility, less knowledge of the subject matter, poor teaching skills, little experience, and an inappropriate attitude toward teaching. Nonetheless, with careful preparation, supervision, and planning, many institutions could benefit from this often untapped human resource.

The basic course, central to the concerns of most departments and our discipline, has been of interest also to journal editors and those in charge of other professional outlets. However, few papers and articles have speculated about the future of the course (an exception includes Mehrley & Backes, 1972). Writers may be hesitant to predict the future because of the uncertainty that the future holds. On the other hand, little change has been reported in the basic course even though dramatic changes have occurred in other avenues of the field. Theorists may feel that predicting changes may be an academic exercise since the course is resistant to change.

Why should anybody care about the future of "The Basic Course" as it is so often called? One reason is that our identity, for better or worse, seems inextricably tied to it. Many people including colleagues from other disciplines think that the basic course *is* our field. Does anyone think of the field of psychology being Psychology 101? Does anyone believe freshman composition is the entire field of English? Yet many students and professors think the basic course is what speech communication is all about. Our identity is uncomfortably bound to that of the basic course.

A second reason for caring about the basic course is that it is the "bread and butter" course for many departments. Translating the metaphor means that the department's existence is justified by a big service course that teaches a relatively large number of students cheaply, especially when teaching assistants or part-time faculty are available instead of regular faculty. Thousands of today's professors were yesterday's TAs who used the course to finance their graduate education. The future of the basic course may speak to the financial future of the discipline.

A third reason for caring about the future of the basic course is that widespread changes in the basic course mark changes in the discipline, especially changes evoked by the discoveries of research or the embrace of a new theoretical perspective. Because so many people inside and outside the discipline tell the basic course what it should be, it has become rather resistant to change and in many ways anachronistic. Like so many university courses, it is designed to meet a need of yesterday, not today, and certainly not tomorrow.

The purpose of this article is to resist the impulse to remain in the past or the present and offer some recommendations for the future of the basic speech communication course. We would like to prescribe what the basic course of the future should be. We base our prescriptions on four notions: the course must be based on accurate information, it should be inclusive in nature, it must be responsive to our contemporary world and to our student's current and future communicative needs, and it must provide a unique contribution to our students' education.

ACCURACY

Don M. Boileau (1985), while he was serving in the national office of the Speech Communication Association, observed, "If 'the eyes are the mirror to the soul,' then the *basic course* is the 'mirror' to the *discipline*. For many students the basic course is the only instruction in speech communication" (740). Since the course is the only exposure most people have to our discipline, it is imperative that the information we provide reflect the most accurate knowledge discovered at the present time.

The textbooks for the basic course purport to summarize pedagogically the current thinking and research in the field. But Allen and Preiss (1990) examined thirty-four basic course textbooks only to find that Aristotle's *The Rhetoric* was the only text in print that was faithful to a meta-analysis of research results. In other words, most modern texts make claims that are not supported by what is known.

Basic course texts need to accurately reflect current knowledge. So undiscriminating are many adopters that some of the best selling texts are practically devoid of footnotes (students, they allege, do not like them). Allen and Preiss (1990) found that of 71 conclusions about message issues, 55% "were inconsistent with the relevant meat-analysis," i.e., wrong about what the literature says about the subject. Authors, reviewers and adopters, for the sake of our students, need to insist that the textbooks of tomorrow reflect the research that is supposed to inform them.

Publishers sometimes make decisions which inhibit accuracy in textbooks. Marketing experts and reviewers will often choose the "tried and true" over the innovative and accurate. For example, Monroe's motivated sequence has never been shown to be a more effective organizational pattern than other methods of arranging a public speech. Nonetheless, few successful books are without a section on the motivated sequence. Similarly, public speaking textbooks rely on organizational patterns, in general, that rely on written, rather than oral, modes of delivery. Outlining, appropriate for essays, but not necessarily for oral messages, is included in every text.

Accuracy should be evident in our courses and our texts. However, we cannot be the caretakers of accurate information if we are not informed. Teachers of tomorrow need to be idea generators, persistent readers of the professional literature, and researchers into the prickly questions that remain unanswered. We should be ashamed that Aristotle is more consistent with what is known than we are ourselves. And we need to overcome the comfortable myth that we can be teachers without a healthy sense of inquiry that keeps our pedagogy on top of our knowledge base.

Our knowledge must extend beyond the subject matter of our discipline. One contribution of the field has been the generation of knowledge about teaching.. We have ample research on effective teaching methods, and yet the basic course remains essentially the same today as it has in years past. We must provide delivery systems which are consistent with our current knowledge.

INCLUSIVENESS

Today's basic course, more than ever before, includes students from a variety of cultures and subcultures. The basic course must be for all people; it can no longer be exclusively for white, middle-class males. For example, the majority of college students seeking B. A. degrees today are women (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1989). Within the next decade, the majority of graduate students seeking the doctoral degree will similarly be female ("Education Department," 1990). At the same time, most collegiate administrative positions and most professoriate posts are held by men. As a result, the academy embraces male values, attitudes, and perspectives even though the majority of those served are female. The basic course, like the university at large, must respond to this change in clientele.

Groups other than women are similarly entering the basic course in greater numbers. The university is now receiving applications from an increased number of persons who are non-Caucasians. Orlando Taylor (1990), Dean of the School of Communications at Howard University, recently observed that the field of speech communication is not as attractive to people of diverse backgrounds as are other disciplines including engineering and business. He urges administrators and faculty to include cross-cultural and subcultural concerns within the communication curriculum.

The United States has also experienced an increase in international students (see, for example, Churchman, 1986; Hesler, 1986; McKenzie & Ross, 1989; Rojas-Gomez &

Pearson, in press; Schlessman, 1985). Finally, because the basic course is required on many campuses, psychological characteristics and communication apprehension must be considered in course design and delivery system (see, for example, Beatty, Forst, & Stewart, 1986; Booth-Butterfield, 1986; Bowers & 36C:099, 1986). Each of these groups require a rethinking of the goals and activities of the basic course. We must be increasingly inclusive, rather than exclusive, with regard to our audience.

Miller (1987) recently compared the Dale Carnegie course with the basic course as it is operationalized at most universities. She noted that Dale Carnegie's course was originated in New York City in 1912 for the YMCA, and had as its purpose practical instruction "to men whose jobs depended on facility in communication." She added that the course "came to symbolize the American pursuit of material success." Miller summarizes the criticism of the Dale Carnegie course by academicians:

> Academics, however, have regarded Carnegie's method as little more than "animal-training tactics," and complain (1) that students are not given realistic assessment of their speaking skills; (2) that his "hard-sell" approach to marketing his course has often been fraudulent; and (3) that his motives are unethical because they involves selling a course that is designed to make money and increase the students' earning potentials, mostly by giving them a predatory advantage over their audience. Finally, the biggest difference is that Carnegie offers training, while the university offers an education based on research and theory. (abstract)

Miller is probably accurate in her depiction of the differences between the Dale Carnegie course and common criticisms that are offered. However, she may be overstating the extent to which collegiate basic courses are dependent on research and theory.

Recently, Brummet (1986) wrote an essay in which he depicted four potential approaches to public speaking education which ranged from the absolutist to the relativist. Absolutism assumes that one holds the truth and his or her job as a public speaker is to enunciate that truth. Witnessing, in this way, results in the potential benefit of faithfulness. The absolutist believes that others who disagree simply need more information.

The second stance, awareness, occurs when the speaker recognizes that others may hold all of the information available, but they still disagree. This person is metaphorically called "the soldier" by Brummet since he or she seeks to do battle. As a public speaker, his or her job is to use the weapons of messages in order to potentially achieve the ecstasy of victory or the sting of defeat.

Tolerance is the next stage. "The diplomat," as Brummet refers to this character, is the one who recognizes that people do disagree. He or she may retain an absolutist position, but realizes that others do not share those beliefs. This public speaker seeks cooperation from the audience. The role of public speaking is accommodation. Diplomacy is the guiding attitude. The possible gain is cooperation while the possible risk is confrontation.

The final state is relativism. Brummet notes:

> The relativist sees public speaking as a crucible for merging self with self. Public speaking seeks to change, not just the opinions people have,, but the people who are made up out of the opinions, values, beliefs,and commitments which rhetoric manages. Therefore the role of public speaking for the relativist is courtship, in which the dyad of speaker and audience together coyly consider whether to become part of each other by becoming part of each other's substance of opinions, values, beliefs, and commitments. The focus of attention is on the relationship between speaker and audience as equal

> partners in oratorical exploration. The guiding attitude for the suitor is love (273).

"The suitor" seeks the benefit of consummation or becoming one with another while risking rejection and vulnerability. The role of public speaking in one of courtship to use Brummet's metaphor.

Brummet would probably place the Dale Carnegie course on the absolutist or awareness end of his continuum, but we must consider whether our basic courses are free of such underlying notions. The basic course, given current enrollments of individuals from differing cultures and subcultures, must be based on the relativistic perspective. Indeed, Brummet suggests that relativism may be learned through "cultural education linked to communication education" (274). Our basic courses, in order to be inclusive, cannot simply recognize nor tolerate differences: they must embrace them.

In the same way, the basic course must include multiple perspectives in the way we come to glean new knowledge within the discipline. Contemporary communication theory informed classical rhetorical approaches to understanding human communication. In turn, more current critical methods have added to social scientific ways of knowing. The basic course must continue to integrate the epistemology of multiple ways of knowing.

RESPONSIVENESS

Many respected communication professionals have noted the importance of responding to student's communicative needs. We noted earlier that Gray (1989) described the 1954 meeting with Lewis, Minnick, and Van Dusen and that the three agreed that the course needed to focus on the students' essential communicative needs. Wallace Bacon (1977), then President of the Speech Communication Association, agreed,

> I believe that we are central to the aims of higher education, today even more than in the past. While I trust that instruction in subject matter will remain the domain of colleges and universities, it seems clear enough that we are no longer training scholars largely to talk to other scholars. Institutions are facing the task of teaching men and women to interact with others in the day-to-day word outside their walls (10).

Bendtschneider and Trank (1988) similarly urge the faculty and director of the basic course "to be primarily concerned with the extent to which the basic course is fulfilling the communication needs of their students" (4).

A variety of surveys have suggested that the content of the course may be discrepant from students' needs (see, for example, Becker & Ekdom, 1980; Johnson & Johnson, 1982) Weitzel & Gaske, 1984). Lohr (1974) surveyed alumni and found that they most frequently engaged in social conversation, making decisions, and giving information to one person. The most important activities included giving information and making decisions with another person, and providing information to a group. Persuasion, making decisions with a group, and persuading one other person were identified as the most difficult tasks in which they engaged.

Sorenson and Pearson (1981), too, suggested that basic courses should help students meet eventual professional needs, but their survey of students and alumni showed that current courses were not necessarily responsive to those needs. Students determined the interview to be the most important communicative activity while the alumni named the small group discussion as most essential. In addition, while both students and alumni favored a hybrid course which blended interpersonal and public communication skills, the trend within the last decade has been toward an increased emphasis on exclusively public speaking competence.

For their part, Johnson and Szczupakiewicz (1987) surveyed both alumni and faculty members about the ratings of the importance of public speaking skills. They found that the two groups significantly differed on the importance on 15 of 18 public speaking skills. The alumni saw informative speaking, listening, and handling questions and answers as most important; they viewed outlining, selecting a topic, and entertaining speaking as least important. The faculty identified informative speaking, persuasive speaking, and gathering supporting materials as most important, while they determined that evaluating speeches, small group discussion, and entertaining speaking were least important. Further more, faculty members reported that they felt that extemporaneous modes of delivery were most important, but alumni reported that they routinely used impromptu, memorized, and manuscript delivery styles, too.

Bednar and Oleny (1987) found that entry level employees were more likely to use the memorandum, the computer network, the informational report, and the letter. Their most serious communication problems included poor listening, lack of conciseness, and poor feedback. They also ranked interpersonal and oral communication skills as more important than written skills.

We must deal with essential communicative activities rather than outdated public speaking. Although we cannot predict what the twenty-first century will bring, some general trends certain to affect our profession include the increasing role of mediated communication and technological advances in this information age. Second, social transformations including changing demographics, alterations in the family, and a burgeoning older population will affect our field. Third, increased geographical mobility within both the professions and labor force alters our interactive patterns.

Brian Winston (1990), Dean of the School of Communications at Pennsylvania State University, recently startled an audience as he predicted that by the year 2010, no serious newspaper would carry photographs. He explained that the advent of being able to alter photographs unnoticeably moved photos from being a vehicle of truth to a vehicle of distortion. Similarly, he suggested that we may now be in an age of technological determinism as current technology, rather than social and cultural factors, determine our use of mediated messages. He urged the audience to gain control of our technological possibilities. Classroom technology, shown to be useful by communication professors (see, for example, Hemphill & Standerfer, 1987), should be adopted for reasons other than its availability.

Kathleen Hall Jamieson (1990), Dean of the Annenberg School for Communication, at the University of Pennsylvania, predicted changes in academic institutions because of technological advances. She posited that three classes of institutions would result. The first group, dependent on print media, such as letters, would soon fall behind. Institutions which added phones and computers to their communication systems would be more successful in establishing quality graduate programs and high caliber faculties. However, the very finest institutions would also have access to teleconferencing with other institutions and the capability of uploading and downloading information. Access to information and the sped with which one could share that information will distinguish the successful form the unsuccessful programs in higher education.

Jamieson (1990) warned that the communication field could become extinct if we do not respond to current technological changes. She noted the irony that the discipline which has traditionally studied communication systems could become obsolete because it could not adapt to them.

The basic course needs to address new communication patterns and relationships. Five-minute informative and persuasive speeches might have served Lincoln well (and did so in his Gettysburg Address), but in an age of sound bites, computers, fiber optics, and twenty-five hours per week in front of the TV students have a greater need to know about mediated communication via modern technology, how to communicate with people across the world, and even how to communicate with spouses, children, and the elderly. Our mainstays are decidedly archaic and increasingly irrelevant to most of our students even if they do rather enjoy exercises that come from the pages of the Roman progymnsmata.

The basic communication course has not been responsive to students' needs nor to change at all. Mehrley and Backes (1972) argued for revolutionary and "highly accelerated" change in the basic course nearly two decades ago. They added that the content of the basic course was "more appropriate for achieving a Boy Scout's merit badge in public speaking than earning three hours of college credit" (209). However, as Trank (1985) noted, "The basic course always has had critics but it has shown a remarkable immunity to criticism and change" (87). He adds, "In spite of a lack of meaningful supportive data and in the face of legitimate criticism" the basic course will continue with "business as usual" (87).

If we are to maintain currency, we must venture into new areas or treat classic topics in new ways. For instance, many contemporary surveys of education and many articles on communication education point to the crying need for critical thinking (see, for example, Fritz & Weaver, 1986; Hay, 1987; Hochel, 1988; Mader & Mader, 1988; Morris, 1987; Schwartz, 1989). The basic course invites the study of critical thinking because it has always been in the course even it it was not labeled as such. Many professors of speech communication cut their teeth on debate, the analysis of arguments, the standards of proof, and the uses of evidence. It would help if we would dwell less on syllogistic reasoning, and more on practical works of ordinary language philosophers and do what the critics of education believe is important: have students think before they speak about the basis and foundations of their statements. The need to know their own epistemology.

Another essential area is ethics (see, for example, Greenberg, 1986). Although many basic texts at least mention the word, few courses treat ethical considerations in any depth. Our contemporary society calls upon each of us to establish responsible ethical standards by which we create and respond to messages. The rapidly changing mass media, new and innovative political campaigns, technology which allows the alteration of news photos, and personalized newspapers require clear and coherent ethical systems.

UNIQUENESS

The discipline of communication has its own unique heritage. While we share areas of interest with other disciplines, we represent a sulphitic field. The basic course should celebrate our unique contribution. In addition, traditional communication activities including debate can be used to teach essential communicative skills (see, for example, Vallin, 1989).

Correspondingly, the basic course would do well to wean itself from its origins in departments of English and the written word by adopting a new metaphor based on orality. Haynes (1990) writes convincingly of our continuing dependence on speech as "well performed writing" with its prestructured messages, composed outlines, carefully crafted notes, and other practices that discourage spontaneity, immediate response to feedback, and other practices to which we give lip service. An examination of any well-received textbook will demonstrate that we rely heavily on written, rather than on oral, communicative practices. What current textbook does not have a chapter on organization? Haynes argues that today's "vid-oral" communication provides a modern day oral culture that should inform our teaching of public speaking.

In the future we need to be more proactive and less reactive. We have for generations taught what business administration, education, agriculture, and others demand of us. Shadowen (1987) argues that while we should accommodate career relevance in the basic course, we must retain our "traditional theories" and "general principles" of communication. We need to espouse our own perspective, based on sound theory, respectable research, and student needs. We do not have to abandon our well intentioned practicality to also be so academically respectable that our colleagues in Arts and Sciences (who rarely require the course) want their students to learn in the basic course.

The discipline of speech communication is no longer a derivative of more established disciplines, if it ever was. Indeed, the advent of the information age, new distribution systems, and high technology should make our discipline and its basic course increasingly indispensable inside and outside the so called academic world. All we have to do is practice the concept of adaptation that we have taught for so long.

Those of us who have spent our professional lives teaching, researching, pontificating, and writing about the basic course worry about the basic course of the future. Will all of our favorite exercises fall by the wayside? Will the new and unfamiliar overcome the comfortable practices of the present? With change comes the necessity to learn more about new ideas. With change comes risk, the risk of authors trying new approaches, teachers trying new pedagogy, publishers printing the untried, and colleagues accepting new advances in the basic course. The changes we have recommended come out of deep commitment to the basic course, which – if it is to mirror a vital discipline – must change to reflect a changing student body in a changing world.

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Communication Apprehension in the Basic Course: Learning Styles and Preferred Instructional Strategies of High and Low Apprehensive Students

John Bourhis
Charlene Berquist

INTRODUCTION

To succeed in the school environment, students must effectively communicate with each other and their teachers. Students who experience "broad-based fear or anxiety related to the act of communication" are at a distinct disadvantage in school (McCroskey, 1984; Richmond & McCroskey, 1989; Bourhis, 1988). Compared to students who are low in communication apprehension (LCA's), high communication apprehensives (HCA's) have lower overall grade point averages, develop more negative attitudes towards school, receive lower grades, score lower on standardized achievement test, and are perceived less positively by their teachers and classmates (McCroskey, 1977; Richmond & McCroskey, 1989; Bourhis & Berquist, 1989). Because HCA students typically avoid courses that emphasize communication (McCroskey, 1977), these negative effects become particularly acute when HCA students are required to complete any course in communication as part of a general academic program. In short, HCA students who are required to take a basic course in communication will not be a s successful as their low or moderately apprehensive (MCA) counterparts.

Although treatment is the preferred long-term approach for dealing with high levels of communication apprehension, training, time and resource limitations may preclude implementation of this approach in most Basic Courses. A complimentary approach is to have teachers implement instructional strategies that can enhance the short-term educational experience of the HCA student until more extensive treatment modalities become available (Neer, Hudson & Warren, 1982: Booth-Butterfield & Butterfield, 1986: Booth-Butterfield, 1988; Bourhis, 1988; Beatty, 1988). The goal of the research reported here is to determine if communication apprehension is related to a student's preferred learning style and his/her preferred instructional strategies.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Learning Style

One question of interest to the authors is whether or not communication apprehension is related to learning style. Learning style is "primarily related to intellectual ability differences, process and modality differences in learning, cognitive style differences, and noncognitive personality difference" (Andersen & Bell-Daquilante, 1). This study relies upon Kolb's (1976) conceptualization of learning as experentially based, involving four different learning abilities: (1) concrete experience – a receptive, experience-based approach to learning that relies heavily on feeling-based judgments; (2) abstract conceptualization – an analytical, conceptual approach to learning that relies heavily on logical thinking and rational evaluation; (3) active experimentation – an active, "hands on" orientation that relies heavily upon experimentation; and (4) reflective observation – a tentative, impartial, and reflective approach that emphasizes careful observation in making decisions (Kolb, 1976; Anderson & Daquilante, 1980). Based upon a profile of scores obtained for their learning abilities, students are classified into one of four learning styles: (1) the diverger, who emphasizes concrete experience (CA) and reflective observation (RO); (2) the converger, who learns best through abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE); (3) the accommodator , who is best at concrete experience (CA) and active experimentation (AE); and (4) the assimilator, who prefers abstract conceptualization (AC) and reflective observation (RO) (Andersen & Bell-Daquilante, 1980; Kolb, 1976). This conceptualization is based upon a two dimensional model involving abstract versus concrete and active versus passive dimensions.

Previous studies have demonstrated that student performance is enhanced when students are taught through their preferred learning style (Farr, 1971; Douglas, 1979; Trautman, 1979; Cafferty, 1980; Carbo, 1980). If HCA and LCA students differ in preferred learning style, adapting instructional strategies to their preferred learning style should enhance their academic performance. This research replicates and extends, in part, a portion of an earlier study by Andersen and Daquilante (1980) which compared scores on Kolb's Learning Style Inventory with a measure of communication apprehension. Andersen and Daquilante (1980) concluded that CA and learning style were related. The following research questions were used in an effort to confirm this finding:

> **RQ1:** Is there a relationship between the four learning abilities of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and communication apprehension?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between the four learning styles of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and communication apprehension?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between the active/passive and concrete/abstract dimensions of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and communication apprehension?

Preferred Instructional Strategies

Closely related to a student's learning style are the instructional strategies that a teacher might use in instructing students. Performance is enhanced when an appropriate match exists between a student's preferred learning style and the instructional strategies used by the teacher. On any given topic a teacher might choose to present a lecture,, lead the class in a discussion, put students into groups, show a film, engage in a socratic dialogue with the class or have students "role play" a particular situation. Neer, Hudson and Warren (1982) found that in public speaking courses, HCA, MCA and LCA students preferred different grading, speech preparation, speaking order, topic selection and administration procedures. Booth-Butterfield (1988) reported that anxiety and avoidance of HCA students could be moderated by manipulating context, motivation, and acquaintance factors in the classroom. One would also expect differences between HCA and LCA students in a course in interpersonal communication. For example, the HCA student should prefer listening to a lecture on interpersonal conflict versus role-laying a conflict in front of his/her classmates. In contrast, the LCA student should prefer an experiential exercise that illustrates nonverbal communication versus viewing a film on the topic. The following research question addresses this issue.

RQ4: Is there a difference between the instructional strategies preferred by HCA, MCA and LCA students?

METHOD

Subjects

Data were collected from undergraduate students enrolled in an eighteen week Basic Course in interpersonal communication at a midwestern university. Forty to fifty sections of this Basic Course are offered every semester serving approximately 1200 to 1500 students per year. The Basic Course is divided into a mass lecture component and individualized instruction provided in "laboratories." The course in interpersonal communication is one of two Basic Courses offered by a Department of Communications and is required by a majority of academic programs at the university. Eleven sections (25%) of a forty-four section Basic Course in interpersonal communication were randomly selected yielding 332 subjects. Six instructors taught all of the sections using a common syllabus. The average age of respondents was 19 (SD=2.56, range: 17-47). There were fewer male (n=122, 36.7%) than female (n=210, 63.3%) subjects. The majority of the subjects were freshmen (n=254, 76.5%), and were primarily undeclared (n=132, 39.8%), Business (n=36, 10.8%) or accounting (n=31, 9.3%) majors.

Procedures

At the end of the semester, students in each of the eleven sections were given an opportunity to earn "extra-credit" points by voluntarily participating in the study. Students were informed that the survey was part of an on-going project to improve the quality of instruction provided in the Basic Course. Subjects signed a consent form, filled out a short demographic questionnaire and completed a survey consisting of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI), McCroskey's PRCA-24, and an Instructional Strategies questionnaire. This survey was one of several instances when students were asked to provide feedback about instruction in the Basic Course. Primary statistical procedures included t-tests, Pearson correlations and one-way analysis of variance.

MEASURES

Communication Apprehension

McCroskey's PRCA-24 operationalized communication apprehension. The PRCA-24 has "evolved as the dominant instrument employed by both researchers and practitioners for measuring trait-like communication apprehension" (McCroskey *et al.*, 1985, 165). The instrument has well-established predictive and construct validity as well as high reliability (McCroskey, Daly, Richmond, & Falcione, 1977). Based on their scores on the PRCA-24 (*M*=66.69; *SD*=15.87), subjects were classified as either LCA's (*n*=60), Moderate CA's (*n*=221) or HCA's (*n*=61).

Preferred Instructional Strategies

Preferred instructional strategies were assessed by having students rate twenty-two instructional strategies compiled by the authors. Subjects were requested to indicate how effective each strategy was in helping them to learn. Ratings of the instructional strategies were measured using Likert-type scales similar to those of the PRCA-24. Responses ranged from very effective to very ineffective in "helping you" to learn. Instructional strategies included such items as: lectures, speeches, a variety of writing assignments (short papers, term papers, in-class and take-home), various testing formats (true or false, multiple choice, essay, and short answer), films, field trips, and educational games. The instrument used to assess preferred instructional strategies is provided in Figure 1.

Learning Styles

Learning style was operationalized using Kolb's Learning Style Inventory. The LSI is a self-report instrument in which subjects rank order four possible works in each of nine different sets. Each word represents one of four learning abilities: watching (RO); feeling (CE); doing (AE); thinking (AC). The LSI is one of the most widely publicized learning style instruments (Kolb, Rubin & McIntyre, 1971; Kolb & Wolfe, 1975; Kolb, 1978; Lemoine & Rasberry, 1980; Andersen & Bell-Daquilante, 1980) as is suggestive of a relationship between communication variables and learning style (Andersen & Bell-Daquilante, 1980).

The items in this section are designed to gather information about which teaching strategies are **MOST EFFECTIVE** in helping **YOU** to learn. Please identify how effective each of these strategies is for **YOU** by circling the appropriate response opposite each item.

5=very effective (VE)
4=effective (E)
3=undecided (U)
2=ineffective (I)
1=very ineffective (VI)

	VI	I	U	E	VE
Lectures	1	2	3	4	5
Class discussions	1	2	3	4	5
Small group discussions	1	2	3	4	5
Oral reports	1	2	3	4	5
Speeches	1	2	3	4	5
Small group projects	1	2	3	4	5
In-class writing activities	1	2	3	4	5
Short papers written outside of class	1	2	3	4	5
Term papers	1	2	3	4	5
Guest lecturers	1	2	3	4	5
Self-assessment instruments	1	2	3	4	5
Films	1	2	3	4	5
Being called upon by your instructor	1	2	3	4	5
Role-playing activities	1	2	3	4	5
Objective tests in general	1	2	3	4	5
True or false format	1	2	3	4	5
Multiple choice format	1	2	3	4	5
Short answer format	1	2	3	4	5
In-class essay tests	1	2	3	4	5
Take-home essay tests	1	2	3	4	5
Field trips	1	2	3	4	5
Educational games	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 1. Instructional Strategies

RESULTS

Communication Apprehension and Learning Styles

Results suggest the existence of a relationship between communication apprehension, learning abilities, learning styles and the active/passive dimension of Kolb's LSI. Table 1 indicates that communication apprehension is related to the following learning abilities: concrete experience (r=.1643, $p < .05$), active experimentation (r= -.2134, $p < .001$), and reflective observation (r=.4873, $p < .001$). Communication apprehension was not related to Kolb's abstract conceptualization learning ability (r=.0247, $p <$ .05). Table 2 indicates that a difference was found between the four learning styles and communication apprehension (df=3, F=9.61, p=.001). The means and standard deviations for communication apprehension and each of the four learning styles is reported in Table 3.

Table 1
Person r Correlations Between Communication Apprehension (HCA and LCA Subjects) and Kolb's Learning Abilities

(n=121)

Learning Ability	r	p
(CE) Concrete Experience	.1643	.036*
(AC) Abstract Conceptualization	.0247	.394
(AE) Active Experimentation	-.2134	.009**
(RO) Reflective Observation	.4873	.000***

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Table 2

Communication Apprehension and Learning Style

Style	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Between	6733.76	3	2244.59	9.61*
Within	76590.90	328	233.51	
Total	83324.66	331		

*$p < .001$

Table 3

Mean Communication Apprehension Scores by Learning Style

Style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Assimilator	77.96	17.08	27
Diverger	70.65	13.84	102
Accommodator	64.56	16.39	152
Converger	60.24	13.47	51

Communication apprehension was also related to the active/passive dimension of Kolb's LSI (r=-.4075, p=.001) but not to the abstract/concrete dimension (r=-.0774, $p > .05$).

Table 4

Pearson *r* Correlations Between Communication Apprehension (HCA and LCA Subjects) and Active/Passive and Concrete/Abstract Dimensions of Kolb's LSI

Dimension	*r*	*p*
Abstract/Concrete	-.0774	.199
Active/Passive	-.4075	.000*

*$p < .001$

Communication Apprehension and Preferred Instructional Strategies

Table 5 indicates that LCA and HCA students prefer different instructional strategies. Differences were found between LCA and HCA students on 11 of the twenty-two instructional strategies rated by subjects. LCA students preferred class discussions (t =4.08, p < .001), group discussions(t=8.26, p < .001), oral reports (t=9.07, p < .001) speeches (t=9.33, p < .001), group projects (t=6.39, p < .001), being called upon by their instructor (t=10.33, p < .001), role playing activities (t=5.92, p < .001), take home essays (t=3.84, p < .001), in class essays (t=2.33, p < .05) and educational games (t=2.30, p < .05). HCA subjects reported a preference for lecturing as an instructional strategy (t=-3.08, p < .01). Table 6 indicates that the five most preferred instructional strategies for LCA subjects were: class discussion (M=4.40, SD=1.01), group discussion M=4.38, SD=1.04), educational games (M=4.25, SD=1.01), role playing (M=4.12, SD=1.01), and being called upon by their instructor (M=4.02, SD=0.89). In contrast, HCA subjects reported field trips (M=3.85, SD=.95), guest lectures (M=3.84, SD=0.97), lecturing by their instructor (M=3.80, SD=1.28), films (M=3.77, SD=0.82), and educational games (M=3.77, SD=1.20) as their five most preferred instructional strategies. Table 7 indicates that LCA students reported the least preference for lectures (M=3.12, SD=1.11), in class essays (M=3.17, SD=1.15), true or false questions (M=3.22, SD=1.32), term papers (M=3.25, SD=1.20), and speeches (M=3.33, SD=1.20). HCA students least prefer speeches (M=*1.56*, SD=0.92), oral reports (M=1.64, SD=0.93), being called upon by their instructor (M=2.23, SD=1.01), group discussions (M=2.39, SD=1.55), and in class essays (M=2.69, SD=1.10).

Table 5
t-Tests Between LCA/HCA Students and Preferred Instructional Strategies

	LCA (n=60		HCA (n=61)		
Strategy	*M*	*SD*	*M*	SD	*t*-value
Lecture	3.12	1.11	3.79	1.28	-3.08**
Class Discussion	4.40	1.00	3.69	0.92	4.08***
Group Discussion	4.38	1.04	2.40	1.60	8.26**
Oral Reports	3.32	1.10	1.64	0.93	9.07***
Speeches	3.33	1.16	1.56	0.92	9.33***
Group Projects	3.85	1.07	2.44	1.34	6.39***
In-Class Writing	3.43	0.93	3.39	0.86	0.25
Short Papers	3.45	1.03	3.43	0.92	0.13
Term Papers	3.25	1.20	3.13	0.92	0.61
Guest Lecture	3.80	0.94	3.84	0.97	-0.21
Self-Assessment	3.60	0.96	3.48	0.96	0.71
Films	3.47	1.21	3.77	0.82	-1.61
Questioning	4.02	0.89	2.23	1.01	10.33***
Role Play	4.12	0.99	3.00	1.08	5.92***
Objective Tests	3.72	0.94	3.80	0.70	-0.57
True/False	3.22	1.32	3.03	1.02	0.86
Multiple Choice	3.72	1.32	3.57	0.92	0.69
In-class Essay	3.17	1.15	2.69	1.10	2.33*
Take Home Essay	3.92	1.03	3.20	1.03	3.84***
Short Answer	3.62	1.03	3.43	0.85	1.22
Field Trips	4.07	1.12	3.85	0.95	1.14
Educational Games	4.25	1.10	3.77	1.19	2.30*

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Table 6
MOST Preferred Instructional Strategies for LCA/HCA Students

LCA Students (*n*=60)			HCA Students (*n*=61)		
Strategy	*M*	*SD*	Strategy	*M*	*SD*
Class Discussion	4.40	1.01	Field Trips	3.85	0.95
Group Discussion	4.38	1.04	Guest lecture	3.80	0.97
Educational Games	4.25	1.10	Lecture	3.80	1.28
Role Play	4.12	1.01	Films	3.77	0.82
Questioning	4.02	0.89	Educational Games	3.77	1.20

Table 7
LEAST preferred Instructional Strategies for LCA/HCA Students

LCA Students (*n*=60)			HCA Students (*n*=61)		
Strategy	*M*	*SD*	Strategy	*M*	*SD*
Lectures	3.12	1.11	Speeches	1.56	0.92
In-class Essay	3.17	1.15	Oral Reports	1.64	0.92
True/False	3.22	1.32	Questioning	2.23	1.01
Term Papers	3.25	1.20	Group Discussion	2.39	1.55
Speeches	3.33	1.20	In-class Essay	2.69	1.10

DISCUSSION

Communication Apprehension and Learning Style

Although this study does not clarify the exact nature of the relationship, communication apprehension, learning ability and style appear to be related. Concrete experience (r=.1643, $p < .05$) and reflective observation (r=.4873, $p <$ .001) are associated with higher levels of communication apprehension while active experimentation (r=-.2134, $p <$ .01) is associated with lower communication apprehension. This, in part, reflects the relationship found between HCA's who are more passive in their approach to learning and LCA's who are more active (r=-.4075, $p < .001$). No relationship was found between the concrete/abstract dimension of Kolb's LSI and communication apprehension (r=-.0774, $p >$ .05). This finding is consistent with work by Andersen and Bell-Daquilante (1980) who argue that the active/passive dimension of Kolb's LSI may be operating with more validity when the concrete/abstract dimension. Higher levels of communication apprehension are associated with the learning styles of assimilation (M=75.96, SD=17.08) and divergence (M=70.65, SD=13.84) while lower levels are associated with accommodation (M=64.56, SD=16.39) and convergence (M=60.24, SD=13.47). This finding is consistent with Kolb's conceptualization of learning style in which assimilators and divergers (HCA's) are less active (relying upon reflective observation as a learning ability) then accommodators and convergers (LCA's) who rely more upon active experimentation as a learning ability. The results suggest that LCA and HCA students differ in how they approach the process of learning. Additional research should be conducted to clarify more precisely the nature of this relationship.

Communication Apprehension and Preferred Instructional Strategies

The results of this study demonstrate that LCA and HCA students express different preferences for instructional strategies. As one might suspect, HCA students generally prefer instructional strategies that are less active (field trips, lectures, and films) over those that require greater interaction with others (speeches, oral reports, being called upon by their instructor, and group activities). In contrast, the LCA student prefers those strategies that actively engage him or her in the learning process (discussions, educational games, role playing and being questioned by their instructors) while expressing less preference for more passive strategies, particularly writing activities. Additional research should be conducted to assess the relationship between educational outcomes such as performance, achievement, satisfaction and retention as they relate to preferred instructional strategies. What are the effects on educational outcomes when instructors rely upon instructional strategies that are not preferred by their students? Who will be effected more, the LCA student who is taught using passive instructional strategies or the HCA student who is forced to be active? We would predict that educational outcomes for both groups would be enhanced by relying upon those strategies they most prefer, and that LCA students are less effected when taught using less preferred strategies.

Implications for Teaching and the Basic Course

This study suggests that in the typical classroom, students differ in terms of their orientation to the process of learning and the instructional strategies they perceive to be most effective in teaching them. Previous research indicates that instructional strategies that are consistent with a student's learning style will enhance academic performance. Instructional strategies are the means by which an instructor can adapt to and operationalize learning style. The implications for teaching are: (1) recognize and acknowledge the diversity in student learning styles and preferences for instructional strategies and (2) adapt to these differences by incorporating a variety of instructional strategies on any given topic. HCA students can be helped by incorporating instructional strategies that allow them to passively engage information while LCA students prefer more active involvement. For example, we could design a unit on conflict that incorporated instructional strategies to meet the needs of both LCA dn HCA students. Material on conflict could be presented using a combination of short lecture, film, and educational games (HCA preferences) with a class discussion and questions directed to LCA students (LCA preferences). Incorporating a variety of strategies in the instructional process will help insure that neither group is significantly disadvantaged in the process. This assumes, of course, that we, as teachers, are willing and able to make the adaptations that are suggested by this study.

Instruction in the basic course is even more problematic. Basic courses are charged with the mandate to effectively teach large numbers of students using limited resources at the lowest cost per student. Often this leads to the instruction of students in large mass lecture settings coupled with individual instruction in smaller, multi-section laboratories. One possible implication of this study is to consider the feasibility of identifying and then assigning students into sections based upon their learning style and preferred instructional strategies. The process would be similar to identifying HCA students and then tracking them into sections of public speaking that are designed for them specifically. Instructors would be able to adapt more easily by knowing that a particular group of students is more homogeneous in their learning style and preferred instructional strategies.

The challenge of adapting to student learning style and instructional strategy differences is compounded when an instructor faces an audience of three-hundred, versus a class of thirty students. Often times the "path of least resistance" is taken by relying upon the traditional lecture format as the most "cost effective" instructional strategy. Here too, incorporating a variety of instructional strategies can assist in meeting the different learning needs of students. The mass lecture may require greater creativity and effort to insure variety, but the context itself does not inherently preclude adaptation. The same combination of strategies we might use in a class of thirty students, can, with greater effort and creativity, be applied to the larger mass lecture context. Lecturing, combined with audiovisual material, skits performed on stage before the audience, and questions directed to the audience can help insure the variety in instructional strategies that will be of greatest benefit to students.

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An Investigation Into the Communication Needs and Concerns of Asian Students in Speech Communication Performance Classes

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Every year increasing numbers of foreign students, with a wide variety of cultural backgrounds, come to the United States seeking higher education. In 1985-86, for example, there were over 340,000 foreign students enrolled in American institutions of higher learning (Scully).

The variety of foreign students and the diversity of their cultural backgrounds pose unique instructional challenges for teachers as well as the students themselves. Because of language and cultural differences, foreign students often face difficulty in communicating effectively in the American classroom where their native language is not spoken.

The language and cultural differences are often not considered fully by American educators when they instruct and evaluate foreign students. In spite of their differences, foreign students do ask to be treated any differently than their American counterpart. They, however, need the understanding of their instructors to help them to overcome their language and cultural differences. It is important, however, that instructors take into account the language and cultural difference that foreign students bring to class with them in order to provide the most effective instruction possible.

However, in spite of the fact that foreign students have been enrolled in speech communication classes for many years and the fact that their expectations often differ from their instructor's expectation; there has been little investigation into understanding foreign students' needs and concerns within the basic speech communication classroom.

Only a handful of studies, for example, have dealt with the issue of cultural difference, public speaking performance, and the ensuing evaluation problems of culturally different students (Burger, Cooley & Lujan; Philipsen, Scafe & Kontas; Siler & Labadie-Wondergem). Being aware of differences in textual organization or in speech patterns of Native Americans, for example, may lead to a deeper understanding of culturally different students by speech communication instructors. However, despite the usefulness of research into understanding students from other cultures, there is a lack of research investigating foreign students' needs and concerns within the speech communication classroom.

There are a few reasons why the study of foreign students in speech performance classes is a worthwhile task. The first is that public speaking itself provokes anxiety. McCroskey (1977), in a study of nearly 20,000 American students, found that 15-20% were "high communication apprehensives" to the extent that their everyday encounters were impaired and academic functioning was affected. In addition, a nationwide survey of American adults by Bruskin Associates showed that the number one reported fear of American people was speaking before a group (Bruskin Associates).

On the subject of difficulties foreign students faced while studying abroad, Hull states "Clearly, the area where most students perceived difficulties was related to speaking in the classroom" (35). The question this study investigates is what are the needs and concerns of foreign students who take speech communication classes which require public speaking?

METHOD

In this section a description and explanation of the selection of subjects, data collection techniques, and the procedures for collecting the data are discussed.

Subjects

The subjects (N=21) used in this study were all Asian students currently enrolled at a large midwestern university. Asian students were selected because they represent over fifty percent of the foreign student enrollment at the University of Nebraska. The Asian students, therefore, represent the largest group of foreign students and because there are more Asian students enrolled in speech communication classes that require pubic speaking than any other group of foreign students, they were determined to be the most appropriate for this investigation. Only student from Asian countries ranging from China to the Indonesian archipelago from the north to south and from Pakistan to Tokyo from west to east were considered. In addition, only Asian students whose native language was *not* English, and who have taken or were currently taking a speech communication performance class in which two or more speech presentations were selected to take part in this study.

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

In order to examine the public speaking experiences of Asian student in speech performance classes, three data-gathering techniques were used: Participant observation, questionnaire survey, and focus group interviews.

Participant Observation

There are two justifications for using the method of participant observation and they are interrelated. The first is, since interviews or surveys seek information about events that have occurred elsewhere and are described by informants, there could be built-in biases to their accounts such as reactions to certain terms in the interviewer or the survey instrument's working. The second is, there may be psychological barriers to answering questions that occur when discussing matters interviewees are unable or unwilling to talk about (Becker & Geer, 134-37). Thus, direct observation, although not totally free of bias, is recommended. In order to reduce the amount of time and to gain access to a number of Asian students, the survey method was chosen.

Survey

The survey instrument consists of two parts: Part I asks for demographic information and Part II asks Asian students for their perceptions of their speech performance. The results of Part II served as a guide to topic selection for the focus group interviews. The questionnaire was examined by three Asian students for comprehension, linguistic difficulties and potential misunderstandings. All necessary changes were made to ensure that the Asian student would not have any problems responding to the final version of the questionnaire.

In general, the survey has the asset of being more reliable and replicable than some qualitative methods such as participant observation and interviews (Taylor & Bogdan). The survey also has the advantage of being able to obtain large numbers of responses in a relatively short period of time.

In addition, specific demographic information concerning Asian students taking speech performance classes can be relatively quickly and precisely obtained by using the survey method. Lastly, the survey results can be useful indicators of which topics to probe in follow-up focus group interviews. For example, if the average self-rating of effective eye contact was low, the topic of eye contact can be addressed during focus group interviews to further investigate Asian students' feelings on this area of concern.

Focus Group Interviews

Focus group participants used in this study were randomly selected from all those surveyed. Sources vary concerning optimal group size of focus groups, for example Bellenger *et al.* (1979) suggest between eight to twelve people while Wells (1979) recommends between six to ten. In any event, the group size should not be so small as to lose the mutual stimulation that is vital to group interviews nor so large as to be unmanageable (4). However, a smaller group seems to be more feasible because Asian students tend to be more shy than Americans. In addition, language barriers may inhibit them from participating in large groups.

The outline of topics for the focus interviews was partly pre-determined in order to tap the Asian students' public speaking experiences, such as their feelings at the time of speech presentation, while other topics were determined by the questionnaire. Maximum care was given to enabling all participants to freely share their experiences and to covering all important topics fully.

PROCEDURES

The data collection was carried out in four phases: first, observations were made of Asian students' speeches and the raw data from these observations were analyzed, second, the survey data was collected and analyzed, third, focus group interviews were held and later analyzed, and finally, the three different analyses were synthesized and interpretations made. The following explains the three phases in more detail.

In the first phase, instructors teaching speech performance classes during the fall semester were informally contacted and questioned about the existence of Asian students in their classes. The classes with the largest number of Asian students were chosen for participant observation to assure the maximum number of observations.

Three Asian students, as well as the American students in their classes were observed during speech days in order to find what concerns and needs Asian students seem to be having in presenting speeches. Notes were taken during the observations and later filled in on details immediately following the class. Observation notes represented an attempt to record on paper everything that could possibly be recalled about the observation (Taylor & Bogdan, 53). In order to assure non-reactivity to the observer's presence, the observer arrived in class early on observation days in order to choose a seat that would both afford a good view of the speaker and audience, while ensuring that the observer "blend in" as much as possible.

The raw data collected during participant observations were analyzed for recurrent patterns of behaviors for each

Asian student observed and patterns of similarity between Asian students as well. In addition, notable differences of behaviors were also recorded. If problem areas other than the potential areas covered by each item of Part II of the questionnaire were found, these were added to the survey.

In the second phase of the study, the survey instrument was distributed to all Asian students enrolled in speech performance classes during the fall semester (N=8). The Asian students were then contacted directly in the classrooms either before or after class, after obtaining their consent and setting a time for meeting with them to complete the survey. Due to the anticipated small numbers of Asian students enrolled in speech communication performance classes during a given semester, other Asian students who had taken speech performance classes in the past were located by using the "snowballing" technique in the student union. Snowballing is a technique used for gaining access to potential interviewees through getting to know some informants and having them introduce you to others to participate in the study (Taylor & Bogdan, 83-4).

Pending their consent, all students were asked to complete two questionnaires: a survey questionnaire and an information sheet which was kept for the purposes of contacting students for follow-up information. The information sheet listed their names, phone numbers, and the times they would be available to meet in focus group interviews. The researcher reminded the students that their anonymity would be strictly guarded.

In the third phase, students were divided into two groups of four to six students each according to their available times. They were contacted and asked to attend the focus group interviews. Once they arrived at their assigned meeting time, students were asked to sit in a circular arrangement with the tape recorder placed as unobtrusively as possible. The moderator memorized the topic list and kept the list where its presence would not be obvious, but where it could be quickly reviewed at the end of the interview. Discussions were free-flowing and unstructured except for ensuring that all important topics on the interview guide were covered. The time allotted to group discussions were kept flexible and continued from approximately one to two hours each. The same procedures were followed for the second focus group interview. Tapes of the interviews were analyzed for patterns of similar feelings and thoughts about the speaking experience.

RESULTS

Data were analyzed separately for each data-gathering technique used. The means of responses to each question item in the survey were obtained and the items were rank ordered, i.e., the item with the lowest mean ranking was placed highest in the hierarchy of Asian students needs in speech presentation situations. For focus group interviews, all items in Part II of the questionnaire for which the mean is lower than 2.5, as well as item 11 that asks for students' overall evaluation of effectiveness as a speaker became potential topics of discussion for the focus group interview. In addition, the mean, mode, and distribution for all items are derived and examined for potential topics to also be included in the group interviews, e.g., items with skewed distributions required further inquiry.

Data gathered by using the three approaches were then synthesized by sorting out the similarities and the differences found in each. The analysis was descriptive in nature so as to provide the most indepth understanding of Asian students' communication needs in public speaking situations as possible.

Participant Observation

Foreign students seemed to differ from American students in their general concept of speech presentations, as well as in their physical movements, eye contact, gestures, facial expressions, use of attention-getting strategies, and of course in their fluency in English which manifested itself in their ability to deliver a fluent speech.

The observer's general impression was that the Asian students seemed to have a different image of public speaking itself. The seemed to try to fill the role of a formal speaker who used little humor and got right to the point of what they had to say. For example, they often began their speech in a formal manner (e.g. "I'm here today. . ." or "How to increase. . .").

Overall, Asian students seem to have a different image of the concept of public speaking, resulting in such behaviors as rigid posture, lack of facial expressions, restricted head movements and eye contact, and overall business-like delivery and content. Another conclusion is that not surprisingly, Asian students seemed to have more difficulty in presenting a fluent speech and in making their speech understood because of linguistic deficiencies. The increased attentiveness to Asian students could act as a double-edged sward by either encouraging or intimidating Asian students when presenting speeches.

Survey Questionnaire

Part One of the survey questionnaire tapped demographic information about the subjects of the study. Among the twenty-one Asian respondents, nine males and twelve females participated. Ages ranged from twenty to thirty, with a mean age of 23 years 3 months. As for the respondents' major area of study, the majority of students were business majors. Among the twelve business majors, six were finance, three business administration, one management, one marketing and one accounting. The other nine students' majors were divided as follows: three were in the "hard" science, two in civil engineering and one in food science and technology, two English, two physical education, one was an exchange student majoring in intercultural communication in her country, and one architecture.

Almost half of all the subjects were from Malaysia, making Malaysian students the largest group surveyed. Of the remaining twelve students, Indonesia and Singapore had the next largest groups with three students each. Two Japanese students and one student each from Hong Kong, Laos, Pakistan and Vietnam.

A large discrepancy in Asian students' length of stay in the United States was evident from the range of responses. The shortest stay was two months and the longest was twelve years. The average length of stay was three years four months.

When Asian students were asked what their reason for taking speech class was an overwhelming 86.4% replied that they took speech because it was required while 13.6% elected to take it. This confirms earlier statements by foreign students during the initial study that they took speech only because it was required.

Answers to the question "How many speeches were required?" were not easy to categorize. Despite the fact that they all had initially affirmed that they had given more than one speech in the course prior to being asked to fill out the survey, four of the respondents answered in the questionnaire that they had been asked to give only one speech. The other respondents, however, replied that they were asked to present from two to four speeches. The average was 2.9 and over half of the 17 students who replied stated that they were required to present three speeches.

The range of the times the student actually took the speech performance class ranged from as early as spring, 1985, to fall of 1988. Most of the students took the speech class during regular semesters, not during summer sessions. Eleven of the twenty-one students took Business and Professional Communication, eight took Fundamentals of Human Communication, and one could not remember the exact course he or she took.

Finally, in answer to the question "What are your career goals?" there was a wide variety of answers. Seven students wanted to be employed in their major area of interest in e future. Four student simply replied that they wished to be "successful." Three students had much more specific career goals, such as becoming a certified public accountant. Three others wished to become teachers. Two simply delineated what they did not want to become in the future and two did not reply at all. For the most part, the surveyed Asian students wished to be successfully employed in business or technical jobs and three wanted to become teachers.

The mean for each response to the questions in Part II asking student to rate their speech presentations on a scale of one to five (one=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree) was above 3.0. Each mean is provided in the brackets at the end of each question. Thus, it may be concluded that according to the questionnaire, Asian students on the average consider all areas as relatively unproblematic. The following is a list of the questions in the order of the most difficult to the least difficult according to the responses provided by the Asian students:

1. generally being an effective speaker (3.0)
2. gestures (3.1)
3. use of transitions (3.19)
4. use of facial expressions (3.24)
5. eye contact (3.33)

6. speech memorization (3.38)
7. proper use of language (3.52)
8. development of main points (3.57)
9. word pronunciations and speech volume (loudness) (3.76)
10. organization (3.81)
11. meeting time requirements (3.95)

The distributions of the majority of the responses to each question were normal and slightly negatively skewed, indicating that most of the responses to the questions were relatively high. Question 4, which asks whether gestures were appropriately used, was investigated further in the focus group interviews because of the bi-modal distribution which showed bipolar responses. Responses to Question 7 were concentrated around agree and strongly agree,, resulting in a mean of 3.95. Apparently, Asian students consider meeting time requirements the least problematic of all areas when presenting speeches.

In conclusion, the survey shows that Asian students' perceptions of their own speech performance are rather favorable. the lowest item response means was 3.0. There may be two main reasons for the optimistic and unanticipated results that conflict somewhat with the results of the participant observation. Participant observation showed that Asian students seemed to have difficulties in use of facial expression, eye contact, overall delivery and appropriate use of language. First, the survey may only be taping shallow responses. Students may be answering the questions superficially, with no way to qualify their responses further than by checking numbers. Secondly, their perceptions about their performance may indeed be quite favorable. They may have an optimistic picture of their speech performance. In addition, although the survey was tested for comprehension before use, many students still had questions on the wording of the such as, "What do you mean by which semester and year did I take the course?" They may in fact have misunderstood the questions because of linguistic barriers. Another explanation for the unexpectedly high self-ratings is that the initial study interviewed only Malaysian students while this study is looking at Asian students in general, thus resulting in the discrepancy of findings.

Focus Group Interviews

The focus group interviews proved to be the most interesting and revealing part of the study. The interviews took place on two separate days. A seminar room was used to hold the interviews and an audio tape recorder was used to record the interviews. Five students were invited to the first session and four to the second. However, one unexpected student attended the first session, resulting in a group of six participants. During the second session, one student failed to attend, however, another student from the first session returned for the second session making a total of four participants. The Asian students participating in the interview were at ease and eager to contribute their comments. Both sessions were relatively lively with students offering their comments without much probing.

Audio recordings were reviewed after both sessions and transcribed for analysis. Some interesting conclusions could be drawn from the discussions. The results are discussed in the order of the interview outline.

I. Feelings about presenting speeches. In general, Asian students were extremely nervous about their first speaking assignment. Most of them reported staying up till dawn to practice their speech because of anxiety. As one student put it "I get cold hands and cold feet."

There are four main reasons for this anxiety that can be found in Asian students' comments. The first is linguistic in nature. One student admittedly started getting nervous when he had heard American students speak fluently and fast. As a result, he started doubting his ability to meet the same linguistic standards set by his classmates. Later he state "I would like to give [a] speech in my language [for] one hour rather than five minutes in English." Also, since many students felt uneasy about their ability to present a fluent speech in English, they memorized either all or parts of their speech presentation. Memorization, however, did not seem to help decrease anxiety but rather may have even heightened their fear because as in their words, "If you memorize, once you lose a word you panic and stammer."

The Asian students state that they also felt anxious when they did not practice enough and they felt unprepared. This perhaps may suggest that Asian students should be advised to practice adequately until they feel confident about their speech content. Practice alone may not reduce their anxiety completely but it may help.

Finally, a sense of being "totally lost" and feeling "left to give speeches without guidelines" contributed to the anxiety Asian students felt while presenting speeches. Since Asian students are relatively new to the American culture, they are at a loss to understand what is expected of them, thus resulting in anxiety. Thus, it is important for Asian students to ask questions about speaking assignments so that they fully understand what is expected of them.

When asked if students had had any prior speaking experience, all of them answered that they had previously had no similar experience. They may have been asked questions in classes in their own country, but they were asked to present a brief summary of facts or report on a topic pertinent to class discussions. There was no opportunity for development of ideas other than a regurgitation of facts. Some replied however that there were debate clubs in their countries, but that none of the participants of the interview had been members.

In preparation for the speech they had to present in classes, Asian students has two main resources. One was the instructor, who helped Asian students in such areas as organizing ideas into a coherent whole. Another source of support was other international students who helped them in many ways. An interesting discovery was that Asian students had a sort of informal information network where they could find out which international students had already taken the course and then seek guidance from those students on such matters as topic choice, gathering of materials and hints about the exam.

Research for materials did not seem to be a problem for Asian students as they had had previous experience doing research for classes in their own countries. However, after research was done, Asian students spent a lot of time in preparing the delivery of the speech. Many said they stayed up till the early hours of morning practicing in front of roommates, in front of the mirror, or simply writing the speech out and reading it several times. One student stated, "I wanted to impress the audience. I made an extra effort because of the language barrier."

As a result of reading the speech numerous times, the student often ended up memorizing the speech. Others purposefully memorized the whole speech, some memorized the main points in the outline, and yet others memorize the sentences at the top of each of the paragraphs in their speech. The reason for this effort to memorize at least part of the speech arises in their lack of confidence in their English fluency. They state "[My] English is not good enough to speak without preparation."

When asked how they felt when they were using gestures during their speeches, there were mixed reactions. Some Asian students felt that gesturing was a problem to them while others did not remember it to be a problem. In fact, they did not even remember consciously trying to use gestures while presenting their speeches. It could be that the students who did not feel gesturing to be a problem did not consciously try but only gestured when it felt natural to do so, while the students who found gesturing problematic were overly conscious of their gestures, thus aggravating the problem. This may explain the divergent responses on the question in the survey related to the use of gestures. Gesturing may be a topic the instructor needs to talk to Asian students about when explaining basic guidelines about speech communication.

Asian students' difficulty with English was their greatest concern in presenting speeches in American classrooms. Although, a earlier stated, they found ways to rationalize that fluent English would not be expected of them as of other American students, this thought did not erase the fact that English was still their greatest difficulty in presenting speeches. About this concern, they state "we are asking ourselves, 'do they understand?'" They were worried whether the American audience could understand their accent, tone and pronunciation.

II. Feelings about being in a speech performance class. The focus group interviews also tapped Asian students' perceptions about class in general. Reactions were rather strong concerning the subject of being in speech class. Almost all of the Asian students interviewed emphasized that they only took speech because it was a requirement. Students expressed their reasons for taking speech by saying "you sooner or later have to take it, you might as well get done with it" or "if possible, I don't want to take speech at all." When the two students who had elected to take speech of their own choice were asked why they had chosen to do so, one answered that he was curious and another student had expected it to be relatively easy since she had majored in interpersonal communication in her country. She added that she had been wrong to think so.

In general, however, Asian students had negative feelings about speech class at the beginning of the semester, which dissipated toward the second half of the semester. One student explained that at first his reaction to the class was "Oh god I hate Thursdays because of speech class," but that now he liked it so much he wanted to take two or three more speech classes in the future. At first he thought that a D grade would be the highest he could hope for in the course, but now he is aiming for an A. He said, "I really love that class, that's all." Generally the feelings of this student seems to be representative of other students. They start the semester feeling "totally lost" and having "cold hands and feet" but later after the first speech or so, many students seem to begin to enjoy the class. Students state "Now I have self confidence. I want to improve" and "After about half a semester, I began to like it."

Asian students generally seemed to prefer small group activities to class discussions. They seemed to be intimidated about having to speak up in class discussions. There were mixed perceptions about participating in smaller groups, though. Some had had bad experiences in small groups where they felt that their opinions were rejected by group members although the instructor made those very same opinions later. They felt that there was a certain stereotyping of Asian students by American students, such as thinking "The [Asian students] are dumb and they don't know what they are talking about." As a result, Asian students tended to keep their opinions to themselves. As one student put it, "I just sit. I really don't want to speak, I really do, but I don't know what to say. . . I think I have a better opinion but I just, oh well, I don't care." Later on, though, as American students got to know the Asian students better, they started to make Asian students feel more accepted in the group. One Asian student said "Now they have seen us over the semesters and they want to know our opinion[s]."

Others had more pleasant experiences in small groups. American students were very encouraging about Asian students' English ability, saying "We're proud of you because you tried to talk, we're impressed." They even showed interest in the Asian student, asking "how did you learn your English?" In general, however, Asian students seem to have some concerns about being in a small group and the individual group members' abilities to deal with cultural differences seemed to greatly influence Asian students' feelings of acceptance within the group.

Regarding tests and assignments, Asian students all agreed that the tests were difficult because of their lack of vocabulary skills, but that it must be hard for Americans also because their own test results were relatively high compared to American students' test results. Their reactions to assignments were strong. Most Asian students felt that it was unfair that some American students would come to class and be able to do the assignments during class time while they themselves would have to spend at least a couple of hours for the same number of points. They state, "you have to spend two hours for five points. That's stupid."

In general, Asian students' expectations about speech classes were mixed. Some came with positive expectations about learning the skill of presenting speeches and improving their interactions with American students. Others stated having no preconceived ideas about what they were to learn in speech class. However, the positive and neutral expectations about learning in speech class seemed to be overshadowed by the fear of giving speeches. This fear seems to be self-wrought by their own feelings of linguistic and cultural differences and also because of other who incite negative expectations in the students. One Asian student stated that this friend had told him "You don't want to take that class now. Wait till the last semester. . . You'll get about a D. That's alright." Especially since Asian students admitted to looking to international students who had already taken the course for guidance about aspects of the course such as speech and tests, the informal information network or "grapevine" seems to be a strong influence in establishing expectations in Asian students about speech communication classes.

When asked about instructors' expectations about them as Asian students, they expressed almost unanimously that the instructor seems to have a preconception about Asian students' speeches that results in lower expectations for them. Asian students believe they are evaluated on a different scale than American students because they are foreigners and cannot be as fluent in English as Americans. They say that the instructor expected Asian students not to do well or to be unable to come up with good ideas and that the instructor thinks that because they are foreigners they "cannot get a better grade than Americans." One student states, "In their [instructors'] minds they have already thought we are a foreigner. . . [instructors think] I expected this, so I am just gong to give an acceptable." Another student also remarked, "I thought the instructor shouldn't feel that foreigners cannot do as well as Americans." Instead of evaluating them on a "different scale," Asian students stated "They should judge us as they judge everyone else." They are not in fact asking to be judged on the same scale as American students, per say, because their linguistic difficulties would render them at a definite disadvantage when compared to their American counterparts. That is, they would like the instructors to remember that they are not native speakers of English, and to ensure that Asian students are not subtly discriminated against by expecting Asian students to do worse than American students.

III. General comments. On the topic of what advice they would give to foreign students taking speech class for the first time, one stated that he would advise students, especially business majors, to take speech classes as soon as possible without procrastinating. He said that he would give this advice because speech has helped him personally in higher level business classes where presentations are required. Another said that he believed topic choice was more important for foreign students. Since Asian students could not expect to be able to excel linguistically in a short time, he said that they should seek to speak about a topic that is both interesting and one in which they can feel confident.

Finally, when questioned about the usefulness of information learned in speech classes, they almost all agreed on its usefulness. Their reasons for believing speech class will prove useful in the future are varied. Some believe that speech will help them in other classes where presentations are required. Another student believed that having taken a speech class taught her about American culture, about making informal presentations, and about how Americans like to approach an issue. Another student believed that speech "will help in our future career. . .any career." The general attitude seemed to be that speech class took much time and effort, but that they enjoyed and learned a lot. Only one student among the interviewees did not think it would be helpful to him in his future career. He stated, "If you want to work here [in the United States], stay here, it's great, but I don't have to." He did add however that he believes speech class helped him improve his skills in interaction with other American students. Overall, Asian students seemed to believe that speech class had been beneficial to them in some aspect or other.

DISCUSSION

Asian students were for the most part anxious about their first speech. Their anxiety seems to be related to two factors. First, they are concerned about whether they will be understood by their audience because of their accent, tone, and pronunciation. They also are concerned that if they fail to be able to "think in English" that they may not be able to find the word or expression they need, thus resulting in "humiliation."

Another source of anxiety for Asian students occurred when they did not understand the assignment fully. For the most part, since American students have been making presentations of various kinds from earlier school years, instructors seem to believe that all their students know the basics of speech presentations. Foreign students, however, may require specific guidelines, for example on what degree of formality is expected, or if a memorized speech is acceptable etc. As one student put it, "We were totally lost."

Anxiety among Asian students lead many of them to memorize their speeches. By memorizing all or parts of their speech, they felt they are compensating for their lack of fluency in English. Lack of sufficient guidelines about what is expected of them when presenting speeches can also lead them to believe they should memorize their speech. When students are not aware that they are not expected to give a manuscript or memorized speech, but rather an informal speech that has more of an appearance of relaxed spontaneity, they may resort to memorization.

Another factor producing anxiety in the Asian student is their lack of cultural knowledge about what is expected of them when presenting speeches. In order to help reduce the anxiety they often turn to other international students who have already experienced a speech performance class to obtain guidelines. Such informal networks of information may cause more harm than good. Informal "grapevine" sources may give the student false expectations of the class, as one student disclosed. He was given an overly negative image of the class and of what grade he could expect to get in class. He found out later that this was unwarranted and he grew to enjoy the class immensely. In addition, the informal sources may give inaccurate information about how to prepare for a speech or a test, and thus put the Asian student seeking guidance in a perilous position. Furthermore, these channels of information could encourage the foreign student to simply plagiarize the speech text or at least parts of it. One student attested that the research for his speech had been done by another student who had already taken the speech class before him. For the above reasons, instructors should encourage foreign students to avoid seeking assistance from "grapevine" sources but rather to come directly to the instructor to discuss any concerns. All of the students who did seek instructor assistance seemed to be more satisfied with the class. The instructor helped them in several ways, for example by giving them pointers on how to help overcome stagefright, how to organize main points, and even by allowing them to practice in their office before the speech day. Routinely asking Asian students to come to the instructor's office at the beginning of the semester when the first speech is assigned may help prevent foreign students' dependence on informal channels of information. If the instructor provides Asian students with sufficiently clear guidelines early enough in the semester, the Asian student should feel less need to use the "grapevine" for information.

It seems that there are three kinds of expectations that may be preventing Asian students from being successful in speech performance classes: (1) their own expectations of speech, (2) instructor expectations of them, and (3) their American classmates' expectations of them as Asian students.

Asian students' expectations of speech has been discussed earlier, so it will be covered in less detail here. The main point is that many students come to speech class with negative expectations about the class. They emphatically express the fact that they did not take the speech class out of choice, but rather because it is a requirement. Part of the cause of their reluctance to take speech classes may be cultural in that speech may not be expected nor valued highly in their own cultures. Another factor may be that informal information channels draw an overly negative picture of speech class for Asian students taking the class for the first time, thus resulting in negative expectations. It is important that the instructor be aware that most Asian students come to class carrying negative expectations so that instructors will be able to deal with them in a more effective way. For example, instructors may need to use more strategies to motivate Asian students to learn about speech.

The Asian students interviewed felt strongly that instructors had low expectations of them, and that no matter how much they tried or how well they actually did, that they received low grades because they were graded on a different scale. Of course it is impossible to verify this claim, but the important thing is to try to prevent such perceptions by checking one's own expectations and behavior toward Asian students. Asian students should not be evaluated any more leniently than their American counterparts, but instructors should ensure that Asian students lack of fluency in English doe snot result in low expectations for Asian students resulting in the implementation of different standards. As one student stated, "The [instructors] should judge us as the judge everyone else."

In addition, the instructor should be aware that some Asian students feel that their American classmates also have negative expectations of them, resulting in awkward and unpleasant experiences in small groups. Many Asian students felt as if their comments were not valued in small groups because they were later the very same comments that the instructor made. All of them felt that as the semester progressed, and as the American students realized that there was no basis for this stereotype, that small groups went more smoothly. The instructor may help by monitoring the small group discussions more closely and taking such necessary corrective action as asking for and acknowledging Asian students' comments.

SUGGESTED GUIDELINES FOR SPEECH INSTRUCTORS

Given the results of this study, several suggestions can be made for instructors with Asian students in their speech performance classes:

1. Be aware that Asian students may come to speech class with limited cultural knowledge about how to present a speech.
2. Be aware that the grapevine is a source that many Asian students depend on to compensate for a lack of knowledge about speech classes and speaking assignments. Other students may incite negative expectations about speech class, or make their speeches available, thus possibly leading to plagiarism.
3. Try to set up a meeting with Asian students early in the semester. At this meeting provide Asian students with additional information about speech presentations that were not necessary for American students, possible by providing a tape of model student speeches. Also try to establish good rapport with Asian students during these meetings. Simply asking them to refer to you if they have any questions may prevent Asian students from depending on informal sources of information.
4. Try to give Asian students honest yet encouraging feedback. Positive feedback is all the more necessary when dealing with Asian students who need to feel reassured that their speech has been understood. Feedback from fellow classmates also may help build confidence in Asian students.

5. Try not to make Asian student feel as if they are being singled out to speak during class discussions. They may not feel comfortable speaking up in large groups because of their language difficulties or because of cultural reasons.
6. Monitor small group discussions closely and ensure that all members' comments are being respected. Casually asking for anc commenting on Asian students' ideas in small groups may make them fell more comfortable.
7. Finally, take a minute to ask whether you ar being fair when evaluating Asian students' speeches. Are you unconsciously giving them a low evaluation because of their limited master of English? Or on the other hand, are you overcompensating for their linguistic deficiencies?

The experience of taking speech class proved valuable for almost all of the Asian students interviewed. For the most part, they viewed speech as useful preparation for other courses that require oral presentations, and in general for their careers, be it in their country or in the United States. However, we may be able to make the overall speech experience a more pleasant and effective one for all involved, the Asian students, their American classmates, and the instructor by being aware of Asian students' concerns and needs. This may be the necessary first step to making the speech class a place where all cultural differences are acknowledged and understood.

FUTURE RESEARCH

This study investigated the needs and concerns of Asian students in public speaking classes. Due to the lack of existing literature on the stated topic, the study was mainly descriptive in nature. Several guidelines to future instructors of Asian students in speech performance classes were offered based on analysis of the descriptive data. Although this study may lend some initial insights into the needs and concerns of Asian students in speech performance classes, more research into this and other related topics is needed.

First of all, since this study seems to be the first examining the needs and concerns of Asian students in speech performance classes, replications of this study will be necessary to support or refute the findings. In addition, studies testing and extending the findings will also be valuable. For example, one of the findings was that students had little cultural knowledge of what was expected of them in terms of public speaking. A study where the speech evaluations of an experimental group that is presented with a lecture on the basics of public speaking in addition to class lectures, in compared to the evaluations of a control group without the additional lecture could either support or disprove this study's finding. Another example is a study where instructors of the students in an experimental group would be requested to assure the Asian students that their speech evaluations will not be biased against them because of their limited mastery of English. The mean of their speech evaluations could be compared against the speech evaluations of a control group that did not have this assurance. Studies of this type may shed some additional insight into the needs and concerns of Asian students in speech performance classes. In addition, more ambitious studies investigating foreign students as a whole could also provide a greater understanding of foreign students' needs and concerns in speech performances classes.

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The Required Course and the Advanced Student: A Placement Perspective

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To many deans, department head, advisors and employers, the basic speech course is a must. The course, whatever its focus, provides students with a well-rounded repertoire of skills needed to succeed in other academic endeavors and to succeed in the ever expanding world of employment. To the student, however, the basic course may be required and therefore often viewed as a burden. Often this view is tempered by terms' end, when the student can more fully understand the nature of the course and its relevance to the "real world." For some students, the basic course may be a real burden and may lack relevance. This group of students, normally small in quantity, is the group which has, through high school classroom experience or through participation in speech activities, already had speech training which probably exceeds the parameters of the basic course. In this paper, we would like to propose a rationale for placing these students in a different class. This will be done primarily by using an advanced placement system. We would also like to discuss some advantages and disadvantages of the program.

RATIONALE FOR ADVANCED PLACEMENT

One rationale for placing the student in a course beyond the basic course can be seen in his or her academic record.

Without opening a can of worms about predictive abilities, we may assume that some students are capable of doing advanced work based on their college entrance exam scores – the SAT or ACT. Another indication for placing the student in a higher level class may be the standing of the student in a high school graduating class. Such measures can be somewhat objective, but do not provide adequate basis for advanced placement.

Prior experience also may provide a basis for advanced placement. This experience typically falls into two general categories – classroom experience and experience in speech activities. An average high school student might have a one-half a semester in classroom speech training. In addition to being somewhat short, the subject matter and assignments may vary widely due to the training of the high school teacher.

Prior experience which comes from speech activities may be much more extensive. The student who participates for several months in debate, for example, may also take a semester-long debate class. This student would seem an ideal candidate for advanced placement. However, activities experience may also be limited. For example, some students may have the one-half semester speech class and compete in Oral Interpretation contests. The competition may be quite limited, however, due to the qualifying requirements of tournaments. For those students fortunate enough to have year-long forensics schedules, the competition seems to be sufficient to warrant advanced placement. The above rationale should be tempered by a number of things. It is unsupported by quantitative data. Rather, it is much like having a student request exemption from a basic course, in that the person evaluating the exemption request must evaluate the request, based on the descriptions given by the students. Our program sets and maintains minimum academic standards, and then evaluates the coursework or activities taken by each student. We also have a provision for contacting the high school faculty member for validation of the experiences of an individual student. Unlike math and English at our University, we do not have a recognized placement or CLEP test to assess student ability.

Class size would seem to make a difference in the validity of class standing as a prerequisite of advanced placement. Small high schools, despite what a transcript reveals, may not provide a depth of academic training. The predictive ability of college entrance exams is also in serious question. Experience is more subjectively evaluated. "Debating" to some students is one tournament – to others it may include winning the state tournament. Despite these qualifications, some combination of academic record and experience should provide a sound basis for advanced placement. The material that follows describes a system of selecting students for advanced placement.

ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROCEDURES

This system of advanced placement program has a long history. As early as 1965, students with prior training were selected to participate in the advanced placement program. The program has been modified over the years, but the description that follows reflects current practice.

Students are *invited* to apply for advanced placement in speech communication under a strictly regulated set of standards. This system in not an *exemption* system. That is, the speech requirement is not waived, but it is altered. Policy specifies that "Advanced placement refers to the procedure by which a student with prior departmental approval completes specified courses in lieu of the Fundamentals of Speech core requirement and receives credit for both Fundamentals of Speech and the advanced course(s) after course(s) is/are successfully completed."

Within this policy guideline, students are invited in June to apply for placement in an advanced class. Such students are selected by analysis of a computer printout which gives the department high school coursework grades in math, English, social science and natural science. Each of the three applicable areas of the ACT is reflected by score, as is the composite score. The printout also provides information about the student's participation in speech activities and indicates if the student received any awards. The last two items of information are simply yes-no responses, so they must be treated moderately. To be invited, a student must score 24 or above on the ACT composite score. This is the primary index which begins the invitation process. However, if a student has a lower ACT and excellent grades and some indication of participation, she or he may be invited to apply for advanced placement. The computer printout is simply an aid to identify prospective students who may be eligible.

Specifically, the policy states that:

> "All students granted advanced placement must meet the following preliminary requirements.
>
> 1. Provide the Departmental Administrator of the Department of Speech with evidence of appropriate prior speech experience – including a high school level course in speech and/or extensive professional speech experience. And,
> 2. Have achieved a composite ACT score of not less than 24 or be ranked in the upper 25 percent of their high school graduating class."

When the invitation is extended to prospective students, documentation of material in the two categories above is submitted.

If the student accepts the invitation to apply for advanced placement in speech communication, and if she/he meets the departmental requirements for advanced placement, the Department Head determines the course(s) the student may take to satisfy the University oral communication requirement. Figure 1 includes the form used to notify the student and other necessary parties of advanced placement in speech.

The application of ____________________ for advanced standing in Speech has been approved. On order to achieve Advanced Placement Credit, this student must take at least *3 credit hours* chosen from the course(s) checked blow in fulfillment of the University Speech Requirement. (Credit hours are in parentheses.) Upon completion of the approved course(s), the student must apply for Advanced Placement Credit in SpCm 101.

_____ Acting (3)
_____ Theatre Activities Acting (only 1)
_____ Interpersonal Communication (2)
_____ Debate (3)
_____ Forensic Activities (only 1)
_____ Public Speaking (3)
_____ Argumentation (3)
_____ Oral Interpretation (3)
_____ Discussion (3)
_____ Parliamentary Procedure (2)

APPROVED:

____

Head, Department of Speech

cc: Admissions and records
Dean of Student's College
Advisor
Student

Figure 1. **Notification of Advanced Standing in Speech**

Thus, the application procedure and the courses allowed are strictly followed. A student may not take an advanced course for placement credit without invitation.

The above list reflects the only courses that are allowed to satisfy the University requirement. It should be noted that the policy of the department established a priority list of the order in which a student would place. The department feels that the following courses most accurately reflect the philosophy and direction of the basic course, and thus, most students would be channeled into this group of courses:

Public Speaking
Debate
Forensic Activities (not more than 1 credit)
Argumentation
Discussion

For students with extensive experience in the above courses, advanced placement might be granted for the following courses:

Interpersonal Communication
Oral Interpretation
Parliamentary Procedure

Only in rare cases are students allowed to take the two theatre courses to satisfy the basic speech requirement.

The invitation and placement process is completed prior to summer registration for incoming freshmen. It should be mentioned that an important part of the placement procedure is based on some subjective criteria. The department feels comfortable with assessing the experience of the student based on his or her classroom teacher or coach. The department is extremely active in high school forensics and in the state speech association and generally we know the high school teacher or coach. That knowledge often gives accurate indication of the training of the student.

If this procedure seems "paperwork intensive," it is not. The department receives a printout of students admitted to the University. This printout arrives in early June, and reflects several things about the student. We are most concerned about the ACT score at this time. Those with high enough scores are identified by the department head, and a personalized letter is sent which explains the program and invites them to apply for placement. They are required to respond so that they can avoid enrolling for Speech 101 during summer registration. The process is fairly well-tuned and actually takes little time to accomplish. After the invitation is extended to the student, the impetus to complete the process is on the student. It also allows early, often personal interaction with students.

Placing Advanced Students

After the invitation process, placement of students is somewhat subjective. The department head evaluates the form returned by the student. The following criteria are applied in the placement process.

1. Students who had no speech experience are informed that they are not eligible, despite the invitation.
2. A student who has a classroom speech course will be invited to enroll in courses such as public speaking, debate, argumentation or discussion. These courses reflect the philosophy of the basic course.
3. Students who have theatre activities experience will be invited to enroll in the same courses. Their experience already includes theatre, and they would not be placed there.

4. Students with debate experience will be allowed to take discussion, oral interpretation or theatre.
5. Students with oral interpretation experience will be invited to take public speaking, debate, argumentation or discussion.
6. Students with an extensive amount of experience may be allowed to take interpersonal communication, as well as the others.
7. The activities courses (one credit) are used sparingly.

The philosophy of placement is to expose the student to an oral communication course which will enhance previous communication experiences. If a student has concentrated on one type of activity, he or she is invited to take coursework in other areas. If the student has extensive classroom and activities experience, the interpersonal communication course is elected.

When the student has completed the advanced course, she or he is responsible for verifying completion and having the satisfaction of the University requirement properly documented. This is done by securing the Advanced Placement Form from the Testing Office and having the Head of the Department of Speech verify completion and the grade for the advanced course. Credit is then granted for *Fundamentals of Speech* (the basic course). The student need not complete the advanced placement process during the freshman year, but the course should be completed by the end of the sophomore year.

Disadvantages of the System

Like any system, the advanced placement system has certain disadvantages. Fortunately, they are not overwhelming, as is evidenced by the long life of the program. One problem is that students feel compelled to take the advanced course in their first semester of college. In many cases, despite academic predictors and experience, students may not be mature enough to do advanced work. The basic theoretical concepts are the same in the *Public Speaking* class for example, but the intensity of the assignments and performances often overwhelm the freshman student. Often it is less their ability that causes the problem, but thrown in with juniors and seniors often gives them attitudinal problems. Often, it is also their attitude about other advanced placement students. Some freshmen are clearly better students than some of the juniors or seniors. Nonetheless, some ask if they should drop because of perceptions of the other students. One or two semesters of maturing often helps the student in the advanced courses.

Another disadvantage of the system is that qualified students "slip through the cracks." For some reason they do not get invited to apply for advanced placement, or they choose to simply meet the University requirement by taking the basic course. In the former case, students simply may not appear on the computer printout, which would eliminate early invitations from the department. Another facet of this problem is that the ACT score may be too low to justify an invitation to apply, but the student may be in the upper one-quarter of his or her high school class. The problem is that the initial indicator for invitation *may* limit access to qualified students.

Other students may have the academic qualifications and the experience to succeed in an advanced course but for some reason chooses to enroll in the basic course. Often these students are concerned with the difficulty of the advanced course and feel that the first course is easier and will protect their grade point average. Obviously these are precisely the types of students who should take the advanced course, for it is likely that they would do well and gain valuable experience from it.

A third disadvantage may be more applicable to this particular department. As the list of courses suggests, there are ten courses that may be selected for advanced placement. Only two of these are activities courses. Of the eight remaining, some are rarely selected. It would be advantageous to the system and the student to have more courses theoretically and philosophically closer to the basic course. This may not be a disadvantage in speech departments with more offerings. Our courses are largely of a service nature, and this limits the addition of courses which may be of benefit to the advanced student.

A final disadvantage exists. Many of the students who apply for and receive advanced placement are high school forensics students. They are trained in certain communication styles, which most of the department faculty agree are inappropriate for the communication classroom. These students are advised of this, and often take the advanced course later in their academic career. When "competitive" communication behaviors arise in classes, they are not rewarded. Many of the faculty have a competitive background as well, and can easily modify forensics behavior to more appropriate communication for the classroom audience. Since these students often have stronger analytical skills than their peers in the advanced classes, they become positive role models. Most are able to change their delivery easily. Thus, the students are often the best of the advanced classes.

Advantages of the Advanced Placement Program

The long life of the system of advanced placement also attests to its advantages. A primary advantage of the program is that it is not an exemption system. No student is completely free of some University level speech experience.

Beyond this, a key advantage is that qualified students usually end up in a speech class which expands their knowledge and experience in oral communication. Placement of the student in an advanced course is usually done by the department head to ensure that the student is not repeating prior experience. For example, a student who had a debate class for one semester in high school would probably be placed in a class other than debate. Most students are placed in the *Public Speaking* course, because its theoretical level is sufficiently high, and the oral performances and written work are extensive.

The program also exposes students to speech activities who might otherwise elect to avoid them. Those college students with background in the activities may elect not to participate because of time commitments, etc. However, if the participation partially satisfies the University requirement, some added incentive is available to the student. This advantage is, however, a minor one.

There is also a substantial advantage to the department from the advanced placement system. Since 1981. two hundred ninety-one students have accepted the invitation and taken advanced courses within the department. Our basic courses enroll between between 1200 and 1500 per year, so at least one section of the basic course is not taught, in favor of upper level courses. The total University population averages about 6500, and freshman enrollment is about 1500. The number who take advantage of advanced placement, compared to the basic course and total University enrollment is quite small.

In some cases, such as the junior level Public Speaking course, this makes the difference of a section a year. Other courses also are easier to fill because of the advanced students. By having added enrollment in the advanced courses, senior faculty are able to teach in areas of specialty.

Advanced placement students increase the total advanced course enrollments in the department. A parallel advantage is that many of thee students are so advanced that they are fun and challenging to have in class.

Advanced placement students provide an ideal opportunity for recruiting. Students that successfully completed the high school requirement for speech and those that were involved in activities have demonstrated an interest in speech communication. Further exposure, through the advanced placement program, may encourage some students to major or minor in Speech.

There are two advantages for the student. These may seem minor, but they are worth mentioning. The first is that the advanced placement student received credit for his/her university speech requirement. This credit is recorded as satisfactory/unsatisfactory, but does not influence the GPA. Practically speaking, it is also good public relations for the department and the program. The other advantage is that the placement system tries to put the student in an advanced course which is *outside* his or her earlier experiences. This means that the student's communication education is broadened.

Surprisingly, there is also a financial advantage to the advanced placement system. Since the program is not an exemption program, there is no loss of credit generation. However, when the student applies for the advanced placement credit and has it satisfy the basic course requirements, he/she is required to pay a nominal processing fee. The department receives a portion of this. In a good year, your share may approximate two hundred dollars. This is a gain of funds, because no total credits are lost to the department.

Like any system, the advanced placement program has its problems. We obviously miss some qualified students, for a variety of reasons. However, the program serves the advanced student well and is a positive force in our department and for the satisfaction of the University speech requirement. Placing a student in an advanced course is superior to exempting him or her from the University requirement. Other departments and colleges within the University concur. It works for us.

Beyond Writing: A case for a Speech-Based Basic Course in a Vid-Oral World

W. Lance Haynes

In the contrast of electronic or "vid-oral" media, new perspectives on speech and writing come into view. Where propositional argument underlies writing-based rhetoric, recent research in orality suggests that experience-simulating narrative is the essence of speech-based suasory discourse (Ong 1977, 31-6; Havelock 1986a, 124-7; Shuter 102-9; Lentz 90-108). Haynes extends the oralist case in contemporary thought to argue that writing robs speech of its humanity and that an excess of writing-based thought can blind us to certain aspects of speech that take on new importance as the vid-oral media rise to dominance (1988 and 1990). Jamieson describes today's public speech as a "collaborative and intimate act that enmeshes speaker and audience" (45). Arguing that "conversational delivery and natural gesture" increasingly replace "impassioned speech," Jamieson examines speechmaking on television to note that words now function "more readily to caption pictures than to create them," and that speakers now emerge "autobiographically in the speech" (53).

This essay reviews the premises by which orality and speech-based communication are distinguished from their writing-based counterparts. Then follows the theoretical sketch of a speech-based basic curriculum suited to the new vid-oral environment.

MEDIA AND "WAYS OF THINKING"

Distinction among the three major media groups in human history, oral, written, and vid-oral, belong among the first lessons in any basic communication course because different media are suited to different communication ends. Such differences may be readily understood through the relationships among media and "ways of thinking."

Neurally speaking, one can be said to perceive the world in simple non-discriminating flashes of gestalt (Glass *et al.* 25-84). Ways of thinking, corresponding to qualities inherent in the dominant media with which one is socialized, are ways of organizing those flashes in order to comprehend them, share them with others, and thereby to socially construct reality. The world view, for example, that an objective universe is out there, apart from one's self, with absolute truths and falsehoods organized in ranks and files of abstract categories – "encyclopedic" knowledge – can be understood as an artifact of writing-based consciousness (Havelock 1963, 197-230; Ong 1982, 78-116).

Writing encourages critical thinking. By placing words before us, writing facilitates their scrutiny as well as the development of strict standards for their use. Likewise, writing-based thought promotes division of the world into dichotomies and, by exemplification, perpetuates the notion that deliberate rational thought is the optimal mode for all human choice. Such qualities are facets of nothing less – and nothing more – than a way of thinking.

In contrast, speech as a way of thinking can be understood to provide continuity of experience and tradition among a community of people *ipso facto,* without recourse to recorded (in the sense of permanently fixed) knowledge. Thus is private experience placed beyond actual events in the ongoing lore – the mythic story – of the community. As shared continuity of events proceeds from one there and then to another, constantly through and in the here and now, distinguishing each self from others only in terms of observed behavior and without a significant store of private interior experience (Havelock 1963, 134-43; Ong 1982, 53-7). The mental lifeworld fostered by speech unadulterated with writing is a grandly flowing homeostatic story in which all the possibilities of human experience have, do, or will come to pass.

Because an oral culture's discourse is fixed only in the culture's relatively fragile memories, such discourse defies examination and critical thought is not predisposed to interfere with the natural flow. In this sense, speech does not facilitate critical thinking and can be understood as *de facto* creative. Where creative writing techniques encourage student writers to continue the flow, to avoid critical pauses, writing-based speech does just the opposite: speakers are urged to think critically before they speak to avoid misspeaking. There are, or course, no college courses in creative speaking.

The use of speech to contain writing, that is, speech as reading or performed writing, works, but not nearly as readily or usually as well as does writing itself. This suggests that students who want to explain complicated processes or relay large amounts of detail, indeed who want to traffic in writing-based thought in any but the most trivial sense, should be advised to write rather than speak to their audiences.

Western culture long ago shifted from primary orality into literacy and it is reasonable to question the relevance of orality today. While the answer is manifold and complex, its most salient feature is quite simple: we are shifting still. Today's students pass through literacy into the new media and still another way of thinking which is yet poorly understood. However, scholars examining the issue of shifting media generally agree that rhetoric and communication are to be altered radically anew by the rise to dominance of vid-oral communication. In particular, Gumpert and Cathcart note that "persons are influenced by the conventions and orientations peculiar to the media process first acquired and relate more readily to others with a similar media set" (23-4). Acquired media processes are precisely what is accessed through "ways of thinking."

Probably, vid-oral mediation can no more be understood through literacy than literacy could be comprehended through orality. With the coordinates of these two systems, it is possible in some sense to know our present bearings but not too much of what lies ahead. Vid-oral media do seem to resemble speech in ways that writing cannot (Haynes 1988, 80-81; and 1989, 117).

CAN WE LEARN ORALITY? SHOULD WE?

Oralist research may give the impression that there is no retreat from literacy – that once literate, one's orality cannot be recaptured. Ong notes, for example, Lord's finding that "learning to read and write disables the oral poet": by introducing "into his mind the concept of a text as controlling the narrative. . . [thus interfering] with the oral composing processes, which have nothing to do with texts but are 'the remembrance of songs sung" (1982, 59). This is not to say that such a structure is absolute, however, or that it works in reverse. That the pristine oral consciousness of pre-literate is spoiled by learning to read and write, does not imply that learning a speech-based way of thought disables the literate person. To the contrary, teaching the oral mode of thought and expression as an alternative can be argued to breed precisely the tolerance, will, and responsibility Scott tells us are required of the citizen-speaker today (1967).

A speech-based approach to communication can avoid preparation of written text, instead fostering repeated creation of imagined "songs sung," enabling the speaker to freely and intimately interact with the audience in a natural conversational style, unfettered by need for conscious recall. The objective of a speech-based approach will be to acquaint students with their oral powers of expression in the same sense that composition classes address students' writing abilities.

Further, while writing enables one to avoid thorough subject knowledge (why learn what can be copied?), a speech-based approach demands subject master, thereby rendering at least that dimension of ethical conduct implicit in rhetorical success. Speech-based rhetoric requires the speaker to know fully what she or he is talking about, thus to have sifted all the facts and more likely reached a position that takes account of them all. As Plato's Socrates recognizes in *Phaedrus*, writing-based rhetoric makes no such demand and might best be used only as a reminder for persons "already conversant with the subject, of the subject, of the material with which the writing is concerned" (274-5).

Although the extent to which a person can be both oral and literate is yet undetermined, there is little reason to believe a literate person cannot learn, within certain limits, to think and live orally as a natural state of being, and to use literate thought and its products as the tools they are. Eastern cultures, especially as influenced by Zen, teach and accept the ways of thinking both of writing and of speech as quite compatible. The advent of vid-orality imports a sense of balance to writing and speech for Westerners as well.

The literature way of thinking only seems superior within its own context. All media and correspondent ways of thinking may be viewed as marginally discrete and teachable, thus generating and ever-growing spectrum of options for living. Just as learning argumentation and debate fosters writing-based critical thought, to fully grasp the inducement of cooperation in oral culture, its rhetorical process, may easily be to learn a speech-based way of thinking. It remains to consider briefly the fundamentals of a speech-based basic course.

SOME ORALIST CANONS

Imagine the members of a proto-typical oral community, assembled as they are every evening in the village square. The community's elders, having met in this fashion for the longest time, know the most. Thus they lead the evening's activities by telling whatever tales and folklore – whatever portions of the ongoing narrative – are most appropriate to the village's current activities: farming, hunting, fishing, building, childbirth, death, healing, marriage, war, and so on.

The telling is participatory and strongly rhythmical, full of epithets, figures, echoes, and tropes that serve as signposts for recall; the community together mouth the lyrics, and perhaps more importantly, move with the rhythms, swaying and dancing together, enacting representations of the story's action. Havelock suggests that rhythm is the foundation of all pleasures – including biological ones – and its correspondent manifestation as an integral part of the oral rhetorical experience is hardly surprising (1986b, 72). Remembrance is a community effort for, when one person forgets, other will recall. The entire experience, through which community culture is sustained and evolves, is bound together in totalistic sharing. Truth and falsity are concepts with no bearing here. Rather, such knowledge has endured through natural selection to appear in the community's mythopoetic store is unquestionably correct. What is known is what is remembered, knowledge by virtue of its communal mastery.

This is something of the rhetorical experience of oral folk. To claim that classical rhetoric is the product of an oral culture is misleading, for Luria's work on the fringes of literacy in 1930's Siberia clearly shows the oral mind to be incapable of the sort of abstraction codification – let alone the teaching of codified material – requires (1-175). Literacy must get there first. Lentz sees a symbiotic relationship between literacy and orality as writing evolved in Hellenic Greece (2 and *passim*). Havelock argues for a dynamic tension (1982, 9-10). Either concept presents a far deeper understanding of the ground from which classical rhetoric arose than does the notion that classical rhetoric came from oral culture. On the other hand, in the above description of oralist process are seen three basic dimensions of speech-based speech all but obscured in the written tradition and returned to prominence with the advent of vid-orality. These three dimensions are narrative, rhythm, and communality (Havelock 1986b, 70-8; Ong 1982, 31-77).

Pedagogically, the practical application of narrative to speech is readily accessible through three questions:

1. What does the speaker want the audience to do?
2. What experience will best predispose the audience to do it?
3. How can this experience best be simulated with narrative?

The elements of oral narrative are readily understood as those that best simulate experience. Spatially, simulation is achieved through concrete depiction; temporally, as dramatic action. Experience can be supplemented with video clips, enhanced through role-play, and enlivened with the skills of storytelling often taught as part of oral interpretation.

Coming from the critical side, Fisher argues that stories are tested intuitively through qualities of fidelity to the outside world and probability of occurrence vis-a-vis the audience's experience (14-6). The truth claims stores make, if not explicit, are contingent on audience agreement that the facts are correct (though not all included) and that the meanings stringing the facts together are likely ones.

Such reality-testing parallels changes in the evening newscast: Where Walter Cronkite closed with "that's the way it is," Dan Rather now says "that's a part of our world tonight." Vid-oral narrative offers an intersubjective epistemology well suited for modern human affairs where facts abound to support the coexistence of multiple interpretations of "stories" or events. In discussing varieties of truth, as signified by the first letter in the word, students may enjoy the maxim: "The bigger the we, the bigger the 'T'."

Thus a canon of communality relates closely to that of narrative: there is truth value implicit in believing that others know as we do. Research supports the notion that more credibility is accorded to messages received with the knowledge that other receive them as well (Aronson 11-43). Further, in both the village square and the modern audience, we can observe a phenomenon of resonance, of moving, vibrating, affirming together in response to the words and waves of oral and vid-oral speakers. Such resonance is compelling and contagious, as anyone at a primitive religious service can readily attest, giving rise to a sense of community, of moving together as one.

Rhythm is a third oral canon. Rhythm underlies the basic processes of life and of all existence, and can be conveyed with semantic as well as acoustic dimensions of discourse. The study of poetic is quite relevant in both semantic and acoustic aspects but lifting this study out of the reductionist writing-based frame has yet to be done. Havelock describes oral poetry as a "living body. . . a flow of sound, symbolizing a river of actions, a continual dynamism, expressed in a behavioral syntax" (1986b, 76). There is also a compelling quality to the speaking voice easily seen in the way "unnatural" breaks in speech make us uncomfortable. Rhythm can be seen as a canon of vivification, through which the events and settings of narrative are pleasureably melded with the visceral responses of the individual, but rhythm's communal dimension must not be neglected either.

SOME LAST THOUGHTS

Communality and rhythm are less understood than narrative, yet what is needed now is more a matter of reinterpreting research already done than of much new study. Havelock's chapters on special and general theories of orality, for example, offer a rich store of material as relevant to the modern-day revival of speech-based speech as to the ancient world context of which he writes. Ong's work is equally promising. Yet one must have a care to remember that these distinguished scholars, indeed all of us, work under a subtle and constant institutional pressure to champion literacy.

Whit this pressure in mind, the point of teaching speech-based speech is not to replace its writing-baed counterpart. Rather the point is to give students the full range of communicative options in the vid-oral environment. Writing is best for detail; writing is best for abstraction, and, in many respects, it is best for deliberate, thoughtful interaction. Yet speech is often best when relationship matters and when emotions are important. Speech is often best also when experience, rather than abstract reason, underlies persuasion.

Students who understand the power of their own speech and how it differs from that of writing will invariably be better communicators and critics than those who blindly intermingle the two media in pretense of ultimate knowledge. Jamieson rightly would have the speech teacher's goals be "making the world safe for deliberation," "making deliberation possible," and "making it probably" (254). Yet this goal will not likely be sustained while oral communication is taught with the assumptions of writing-based thought to students conditioned by vid-oral media.

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A Communication Based Model of Friendship for the Interpersonal Communication Course

Rod Troester

Everyone has friends, makes friends and inevitably loses friends over the course of a lifetime. It is equally true that everyone has personal ideas about what friends are, how to make friends, and how to maintain and dissolve friendships.

The topic of friendship is either implicitly or explicitly raised in most interpersonal communication courses. As communication educators seek to develop communication competence in students, it is assumed that the skills acquired will transfer to the various types of relationships in which students engage, including friendships. This paper develops a model appropriate for the study of friendship within the context of the interpersonal communication course. While numerous approaches exist for studying both interpersonal communication and friendship, this paper will explore the psychological approach to friendship developed by Duck (1982) and the management approach to interpersonal communication advocated by Deetz and Stevenson (1986). The purpose of this paper is two-fold: to clarify the relationship between friendship and interpersonal communication, and suggest how a systematic integration of these perspectives offers important insights and implications for the communication educator in developing friendship competence in conjunction with competence in interpersonal communication.

This paper briefly explains the social-psychological theory of friendship developed by Duck (1983) and the management approach to interpersonal communication of Stevenson (1984) and fully articulated by Deetz and Stevenson (1986). A model of friendship built around the general systems principles of structure, function, and evolution is then offered as a means of integrating the cognitive-psychological and behavioral-communicative dimensions of friendship.

PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY AND FRIENDSHIP

Steve Duck adopts Kelly' Personal Construct Theory as the basis for his examination of friendship. Three of Kelly's eleven theoretical corollaries are of particular importance in Duck's research including the choice, commonality, and sociability corollaries (Kelly, 64, 90, 95). In Duck's research, the choice corollary suggests that individuals will select friends based on the other's potential for providing personality support. The commonality corollary suggests that similar construct systems (systems of thought), rather than attitudinal similarity or physical attraction, form the basis for relational development part the acquaintance stage. Finally, the sociability corollary emphasizes that understanding the construct system (the way of thinking) of the other through interaction, enables friendships to grown and develop. Developmentally, Duck suggests that in friendships we choose those individuals we feel can and will support our personality, we seek commonality of construct systems (similar ways of thinking) rather than physical or attitudinal attraction, and we develop an understanding of the construct system of the other person through social interaction.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to provide a complete review of the research program of Duck and his associates. Comprehensive explanations of Personal Construct Theory, critiques of the dominate acquaintance research paradigm and friendship development research can be found in Duck's research (1973, 1977).

The theoretical grounding provided by Kelly's Personal Construct Theory and an ongoing program of research by Duck form the basis for his recent work *Friend, For Life* (1983). Duck builds his case for the study of friendship by pointing out the monetary and emotional costs that result from failed relationships. Monetarily, for example, Duck calculates that every person in the U. S. pays a dollar a day to foot the bill for failed marriages, what he terms a relationship tax. Duck argues that common sense and folklore like birds of a feather flock together and opposites attract, provide the individual with little guidance and contradictory advice as to what to do in developing friendships. A common example is the computer dating service that matches lonely individuals, yet provides no training as to how to move beyond the initial "hello" toward a relationship. The usual result of such a match is that the same lonely individuals are left with yet another failed attempt at developing a relationship.

Duck argues that friendship skills can be taught and need to be learned. Accordingly, the four focal points of *Friend, For Life* are: (a) to enable individuals to recognize and select appropriate opportunities for friendship, (b) to develop a range of strategies to encourage friendships, (c) to provide knowledge of the ways relationships develop and grow, and (d) to develop a set of skills to maintain and repair friendships. These focal points require additional clarification.

Duck observes that while a sense of belongingness, emotional support, and reassurance of self-value are important, personality support is the primary reason why individuals form friendships. In order to select appropriate friends, individuals need to understand what Duck calls the "chemistry" of friendship (1983, 33). This chemistry includes an understanding of and sensitivity to the appropriate times and places for friendship development, judging one's own and the other's relational needs, and knowing how to communicate during the early stages of development. Duck suggests the first several moments of "searching' (uncertainty reduction) become important in providing "markers" (inferences) that help to "locate" (assess) the other person (1983, 49-50).

In exploring the development of friendships, Duck focuses on the processes of seeking similarity and support, the competent use of self-disclosure, and the means of demonstrating that the friendship is growing. Duck stresses the need for the gradual and appropriate disclosure of information suggesting that: "The appropriateness of inappropriateness of disclosure is defined by the relationship between the two people and the level of intimacy that they seek to achieve" (1983, 68).

Realizing that individuals are forced to adapt to and make decisions about personal and professional life changes, Duck points out that life changes from decisions to cohabitate, get married, change or quit jobs all entail new and sometimes hidden pressures, rights, responsibilities and consequences. As life changes occur, complementing relational changes must occur.

In discussing the nature of poor relationships, Duck observes that it is a mistake to assume that relational problems indicate something is "wrong" with the individuals involved. Rather, the focus of attention should be on examining and changing the processes and behaviors individuals use in making friends. Duck concludes that: ". . . friendships often break up from the influence of strange and unlikely impersonal causes that people overlook" (1983, 155-7). The research of Steve Duck provides a comprehensive picture of the psychological or cognitive dimensions of friendship including the psychological and emotional costs, motivational and developmental factors, relational dynamics and difficulties.

THE MANAGEMENT MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

There is a difference between knowing about friendship and interpersonal communication and mastering the skills necessary for conducting friendship and interpersonal communication. Stevenson (1984) working from the approach suggested by Knowles (1970, 1973) explores this difference in interpersonal communication as the difference between a pedagogical and andragogical approach to learning and skill development. Of the numerous approaches available for instruction and skill development in the area of interpersonal communication, some are theory based while others are more skills oriented. Stevenson divides these approaches into two models, the Knowing Model and the Management Model. The knowing model, organized around pedagogical principles, assumes that if individuals know enough about communication concepts, principles and skills, they can transfer this knowledge to their everyday life experience. The management model, built around andragogical principles, includes the following basic components: (a) knowledge in the pedagogical sense, (b) analytical skills focusing on how to think through situations, (c) behavioral skills focusing on perception and message construction and (d) skills at systematically organized change (Stevenson, 8-11). The management model provides insight into how to move from 'knowledge about' interpersonal communication to the 'skills to do' interpersonal communication in real life situations.

The management approach is explained in *Managing Interpersonal Communication* by Deetz and Stevenson (1986). Central to the management approach to interpersonal communication are message construction and adaptation skills; finding ways to present ideas that are appropriate to the needs of individuals, the situation, and the relationships that exists. The adoption of a participative attitude drawn from Hart and Burk's concept of rhetorical sensitivity (1972) accompanies this need for an adaptive focus.

In order to adapt to individuals and situations, communicators must possess listening and perceptions. Individuals must be perceptually able to assess a situation to determine what information about the other person and the situation are communicationally significant. Both the complexity of the situation and the complexity of self and other must be perceived. Developing an understanding of interpersonal interaction systems and relationships is also essential. This aspect focuses on the skills of aligning interpretations – the context of the interaction, and aligning and negotiating the relationship that exists between the parties.

In terms of specific expression or message construction skills, Deetz and Stevenson discuss the management of abstraction through concreteness, understanding through acknowledgement, responsibility for ideas and feelings through ownership, as well as managing defensiveness and conflict in relationships. Deetz and Stevenson develop each of these message construction skills by explaining the relationale for the skill, the situations they are helpful in and how they are constructed.

One of the most unique features of the management approach is a systematic program for organizing interpersonal change called "learning to learn" (Deetz and Stevenson, 121-7). Grounded in the work of Bateson (1972) and Watzlawick, Weakland, and Fisch (1974), this 4-step system involves: (a) determining why a change is desired, (b) recognizing and analyzing problem situations, (c) preplanning for change by developing alternative strategies and behaviors, and (d) assessing the impact of the change. It is this interpersonal change program that becomes important in transferring conceptual knowledge and personal skill development into real life situations.

A DESCRIPTIVE MODEL OF FRIENDSHIP RELATIONSHIPS

This section integrates the psychological understanding of friendships from the work of Duck (the cognitive dimension) and the management approach to interpersonal communication from Deetz and Stevenson (the behavioral-communicative dimension) into a model for conceptualizing and conducting friendships. The model is based on the General Systems Theory concepts of structure, function and evolution (see for example Fisher, 1978, 194-233 or Emmert and Donaghy, 1981, 223-36). In the same way that general systems theory is useful in analyzing complex biological, social and organizational phenomena, it is also useful in studying friendship relationships. It provides a perspective from which to examine the components that make up the social phenomenon of friendships, a means of analyzing the relationships and functions of these component parts, and way of accounting for the growth and development of friendship relationships.

Before discussing the model of friendships are interpersonal relationships in which individuals come to think alike or share similar cognitive construct systems. The individuals are able not only to support the other's personality, but enable the other's personality to grow and develop. In this sense, friendship is not necessarily related to gender, sexual intimacy or the duration of the relationship. In the present context, a friendship is a relational system whose structure involves the cognitive systems of the parties, whose function is to seek similarity and growth in those cognitive systems, and whose evolution or development is facilitated by carefully managed interpersonal interaction.

The Structural Components and Characteristics of Friendship

The structure of friendship includes the cognitive construct systems of each individual and the structural relationships between these cognitive systems. The constructs that individuals use for making sense of their environment form the basis for their attempts to predict and control the environment – including their attempts to predict, control and understand people within the environment.

The structural characteristics of friendship include the constructs the individual uses for categorizing and making sense of the physical and social environment in which he or she exists (collectively his/her personality) and the similarity, complementarity, and interrelationship between the construct systems of two individuals (jointly each individual's personality structure in relation to the other). Figure 1 depicts these structural components and characteristics. Individually, each person perceives the environment and people within the environment based on his or her own unique cognitive construct system. Friendship marks the joining of these individual cognitive systems in such a way that similarity is found, the cognitive systems begin to complement each other, and a potential for growth and development is peceived by the individuals. The 'joining' is partially dependent upon the willingness of individuals to participate in the relationship and use effective perceptual skills.

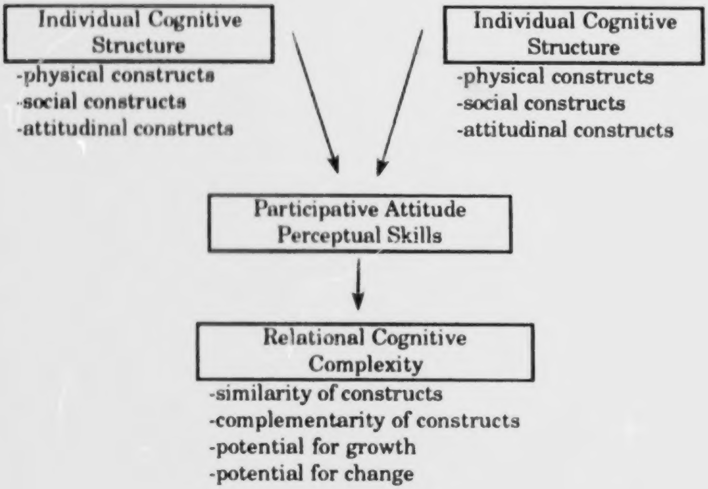

Individual Cognitive Structure
-physical constructs
-social constructs
-attitudinal constructs
Individual Cognitive Structure
-physical constructs
-social constructs
-attitudinal constructs
Participative Attitude Perceptual Skills
Relational Cognitive Complexity
-similarity of constructs
-complementarity of constructs
-potential for growth
-potential for change

Figure 1. Friendship Structure

Duck's research outlined above suggests that the differentiating characteristic between acquaintance and friendships involves the similarity and interrelationships between personal construct systems. It is at this joint level of relational cognitive structure that the degree to which two construct systems complement each other and facilitate growth that determine the extent to which friendship will grow. Friends examine and explore the ways in which the other thinks and assess the other in terms of his or her similarity and potential for providing growth and development.

The Functional Characteristics of Friendship

The functional characteristics of friendship focus on the reasons why individuals form friendships and the process that friendship serves. Duck points out that personality support is the primary function friendship serves. Individuals need validation of their personal construct systems. This validation comes through Kelly's notion of "man as scientist' (1963, 4). The testing and validation of an individual's construct system comes through interactions with others. Figure 2 depicts the relationship between each individual's motives and the joint or relational motives that a friendship relationship serves.

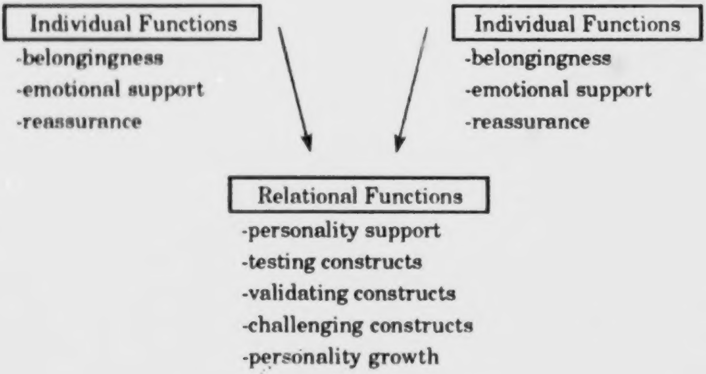


Figure 2. Friendship Function

As individuals interact to validate their construct systems, we begin to focus on the relational rather than the individual functions of friendship. One of the most interesting implications of Duck's research related to the function of friendship suggests that not only must friendship partners' construct systems by similar, but they must be different enough to allow for growth, challenge and development. Research by McCarthy and Duck (1976) suggests that construct similarity-dissimilarity becomes important at different stages of friendship development.

Friends and friendship serve the function of not only validating personal construct systems, but challenging the construct system of the friendship partner. The validating-challenging function requires that the individuals involved know the limits to which such challenging and growth are desirable. This sensitivity requires careful attention to the perceptual skills stressed by the management approach to interpersonal communication.

The functional characteristics of friendship are related to the structural characteristics of friendship. Structurally, individuals erect construct systems in order to make sense of and structure their world; functionally, these construct systems are explored, validated and developed. As the relational structure of friendship develops, the interrelationships between personal constructs are explored, expanded and challenged to grow and develop from validation to integration and growth.

The Evolutionary Characteristics of Friendship

The evolution or process characteristics of friendship involve the appropriate and controlled exchange of information between people leading to the assessment of construct similarity and complementarity of personal construct systems. Carefully managed interpersonal communication provides the mechanism that facilitates this assessment.

The management approach to interpersonal communication is particularly appropriate and useful for understanding and examining the communicative aspects related to the development of friendships. Figure 3 depicts the relationship between the communicative skills detailed by the management approach and the developmental phases in the formation of friendship. The approach is growth and change oriented. It provides conceptual knowledge about interpersonal communication and the means for applying this knowledge to individual skill development. The management approach complements the evolutionary characteristics of friendship by facilitating the growth of friendship relationships, as well as the maintenance and repair of existing friendship. The next section will explore the relationship between the cognitive-psychological and the behavioral – communication dimensions of friendship as friendships are formed and maintained.

In the development of new friendships, Duck points out that individuals need to be aware of what he calls the "chemistry of friendship" relative to the decision to engage the other (1983, 33). Perception skills that allow individuals to understand the complexities of the situation, self, and others are vital to assessing this chemistry prior to engaging the other. By emphasizing social-perspective taking skills, the management approach enables and encourages the construct system of the other party to be explored. Skills at message construction and interpretation are also essential.

As friendship develops through the exchange of information and a growing awareness of the complexity of both the situation (Duck's chemistry) and the other's personal construct system, messages need to be constructed in such a way as to take into account both the needs of self and the needs of the other. In this regard, the participative or rhetorically sensitive attitude from the management model become important. In a model of friendship, this attitude emphasizes the mutuality they must develop as a friendship evolves and grows.

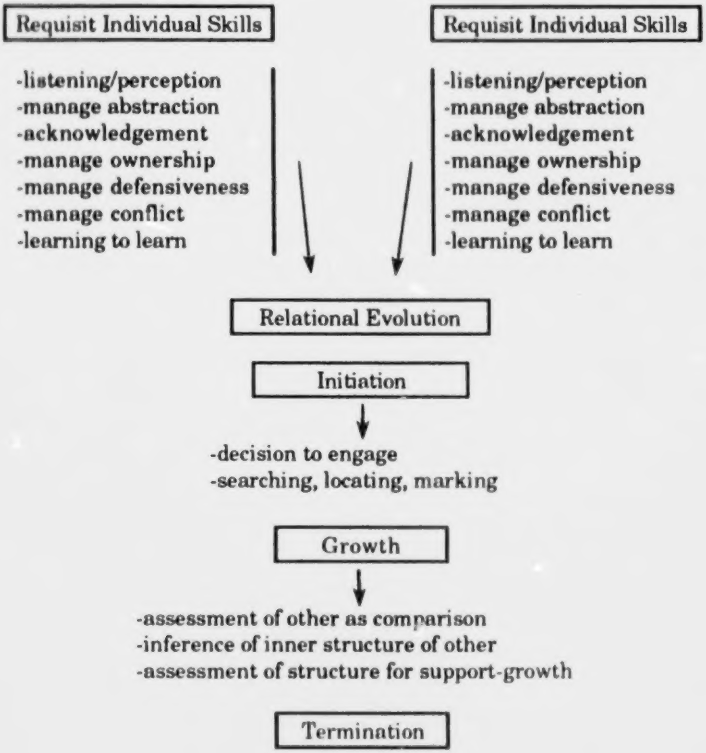


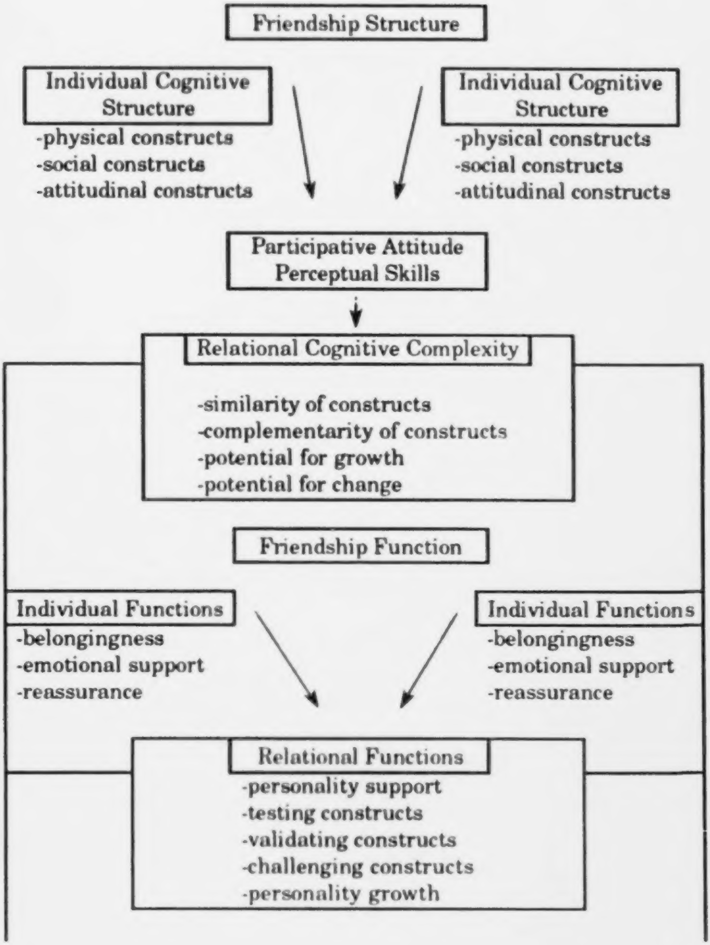
Figure 3. Friendship Evolution

As the relationship evolves, the specific message construction skills of making the abstract concrete, acknowledging messages and the other, and owning feelings and ideas help to structure the self-disclosure of information. These message construction skills enable the exchange of information exploring the complexity of the other and the assessment of similarity and complementarity of personal construct systems to occur.

The learning to learn program for organizing change, when incorporated into the evolutionary characteristics, offers a viable alternative to the "dating service" approaches to friendship development and maintenance. By recognizing the fact that individuals are faced with continual life changes, the learning to learn program helps to equip individuals for these change situations. By incorporating the perception and expression skills mentioned with an organized system for change, the model addresses the ongoing dynamics of friendship maintenance and growth.

Not only do friendships initially develop, they must be maintained, managed, and repaired. Careful attention and sensitivity to the complexity of the situation, the other and the nature of the relationship are crucial. Aligning and interpreting the ongoing content and relational dimensions of the friendship are equally important. Managing defensiveness on the part of the parties helps to build a supportive climate in which the friendship can grow. The inevitability of conflict in a relationship must be anticipated and effectively managed when it occurs so as to allow the relationship to grow rather than deteriorate.

By addressing the cognitive and behavioral dimensions associated with friendship and exploring these dimensions through the structural, functional and evolutionary characteristics outlined, a conceptual understanding of friendship relationships is developed and a practical approach for the conduct of friendship results. Figure 4 depicts the full model of friendship suggested by the previous discussion.


Friendship Structure
Individual Cognitive Structure
-physical constructs
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Participative Attitude
Perceptual Skills
Relational Cognitive Complexity
-similarity of constructs
-complementarity of constructs
-potential for growth
-potential for change
Friendship Function
Individual Functions
-belongingness
-emotional support
-reassurance
Individual Functions
-belongingness
-emotional support
-reassurance
Relational Functions
-personality support
-testing constructs
-validating constructs
-challenging constructs
-personality growth

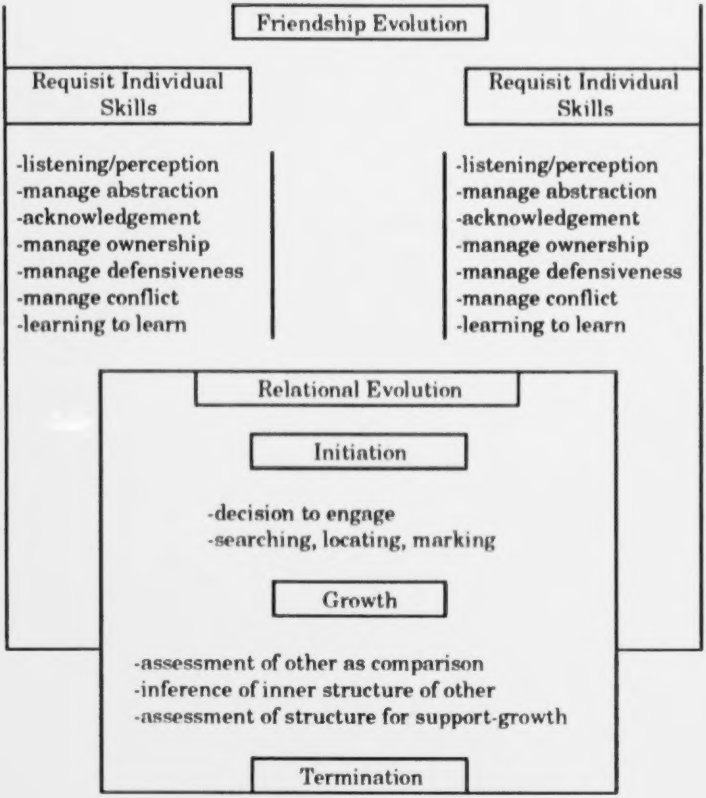

Figure 4. A Model of Friendship Systems

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the epilogue to *Friends, For Life,* Duck argues that the first step to improving friendships is to legitimize and recognize that it is normal for people to experience difficulty with friendship relationships. In other words, the misconception that friendships are a naturally occurring part of life that must happen to individuals needs to be overcome. Second, he suggests that friendship education and instruction about social relationships needs to be taken seriously.

The communication educator is uniquely equipped and capable of taking up this two-fold challenge. Communication competence, like friendship, falls prey to the misconception that communication skills are a natural ability people acquire through experience. As we seek to teach what we know to be essential communication skills, relating those skills to the real world of friendship relationships seems a natural extension.

The friendship model presented here begins to move us from talking about friendships to developing the essential conceptual and communication skills necessary for conducting friendships. The research Duck provides a unified perspective for the study of friendship. Its inclusion in the interpersonal communication course provides students with a useful conceptual understanding of the psychological complexities of friendship. Building from this conceptual understanding, the use of the management approach to interpersonal communication helps to translate this understanding into practice. Integrating these approaches via general systems principles provides instructors with a model useful for presenting both an understanding of the psychological complexities of friendship and the necessary communication skills for managing friendship relationships.

The friendship model presented enables the communication educator to present a theoretically grounded approach to friendship in conjunction with a unique approach to interpersonal communication. One strength of the model is in its integration of knowledge about friendship and interpersonal communication with an emphasis on skill development and relational management. It moves beyond presenting students with what the experts know about friendship and interpersonal communication with an emphasis on skill development and relational management. It moves beyond presenting students with what the experts know about friendship and communication to providing the student with the analytical skills necessary to apply the expert's knowledge to real life situations. By using the learning to learn approach to change, students can actively apply what they have learned about friendship and communication to the actual conduct of friendship relationships.

In teaching friendship and communication skills from this approach, the instructor serves not only as an expert resource person who provides the student with information, but functions as a guide or coach for the student. The instructor assumes the role of a facilitator assisting the student in a program of personal and relational development. In reviewing various intervention styles, Putallaz and Gottman (1981) suggest that such a coaching approach is more effective in teaching social and friendship skills than attempting to change student behavior through reinforcement and modelling. By the instructor adopting such a role, the student acquires a conceptual understanding of friendship, identifies desired areas for skill development, and through the learning to learn system translates theory into practice.

Given the audience most introductory interpersonal communication courses draw, an emphasis on skill development and practical application seems essential. The communication educator's potential for influencing the lives of students is considerable. Being able to present the richness of the discipline of communication in the context of friendship which so directly involves the student can result in both a more meaningful classroom experience, and student more prepared to cope with personal and relational experiences.

The development of friendship competence and communication competence can go hand-in-hand. Friendship competence depends upon communication competence. As communication educators seek to develop interpersonal communication competence in their students, they must provide a meaningful link between skill development and real life. The model offered here provides one means of making this essential link between what educators know and what students need to be able to do in order to fully function in friendship relationships.

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Some Student Perceptions of Grades Received on Speeches

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Michael Smilowitz
Marilyn S. Foster
Lynn A. Phelps

Frequent evaluation of student performances is the established practice in the basic speech communication course. Students are evaluated on their speaking performances, the outlines and other work they turn in, their attendance, quizzes, and examinations. Frequent evaluation is intended to enhance student learning through increased student motivation. One way frequent evaluation enhances student motivation is by encouraging students to keep up with the assigned readings in the text and the other assigned work in the course. A second way frequent evaluation enhances student motivation is by providing information to students about the quality of their work. Students are then able to make informed decisions about: (1) whether to maintain a given level of effort and thus maintain the grade that goes with it, or (2) to increase their effort and thereby to receive a higher grade, or (3) to reduce their effort and receive a lower grade. All of these expectations follow from the overall assumption that evaluation motivates students to do better work.

The literature on grading does not provide much information about the effects of grades on student motivation (Adelson, 1982; Cook, 1985; de Nevers, 1984; Dickson, 1984; Goldman, 1985; Gramling & Nelson, 1983; Hamby, 1983; Hamilton, 1980; Handleman, 1980; Kapel, 1980; Malehorn, 1984; McCormick, 1981; Nelson & Lynch, 1984; Oliphant, 1980; Spinelli, 1981; Suddick & Kelly, 1981-82; Theodory & Day, 1985; Tollefson, 1980; Watson, 1980; Weller, 1986; Williamson & Pier, 1985). The reason for this lack of information about the relationship between grades and student performance is not difficult to discover. Grades have been viewed by both students and faculty as far more objective than they could possibly be. Faculty, no matter what the appearance of their grade distribution, defend those distributions by claiming that their grades result from professional objective measurement. Both faculty members who give no grade below a B and faculty members who give few grades other than C, D, or F are quick to defend such distributions on the grounds of good teaching, objective measurement, student quality, nature of the subject, and so on. Students, too, characterize their own abilities according to objective grade reification so that the "B" students who make "C's" on papers or examinations are quick to approach the professor to discover the fault in the professor's evaluation system that led to assigning a "C" rather than a "B". Given the mutual, ostensibly objective orientation of both professors and students, it is not surprising that there has been little study of the effects of the evaluations called grades on motivation. If grades are perceived as objective and fair, then there would be no point in testing the effects of various grades since those effects would be, in an important sense, beyond the control of both students and instructors.

Since the reactions of students to grades has been little studied, the literature on performance evaluation provides a theoretical base for the effects of various grades on students (Anderson & Kida, 1985; Dawes & Corrigan, 1974; Ilgen & Favero, 1985; Izraeli, Izraeli, & Eden, 1985; Kipnis, Schmidt, Price, & Stitt, 1981; Kopelman, 1979; Meyer, Key, & French, 1965; Mowen, Keith, Brown, & Jackson, 1985; Murphy & Balzer, 1986; Myers, 1982; Pearce & Porter, 1986; Rice, 1985; Rogers, 1983; Sashkin, 1981; Tjosvold, 1985). To see whether the assumptions that underlie the evaluations conducted in business and industry, parallel those employed in grading, recent studies of evaluation practices in business indicated that in business, evaluations are conducted because of essentially the same beliefs that lead to frequent evaluation in performance course in college. Employers believe that evaluations help motivate employees to keep up with their assigned job duties. They also believe that the evaluation will enable the employee to decide whether to continue, improve, or reduce effort in the areas evaluated. When connected to rewards such as merit pay, the basic beliefs in business and industry are almost identical to those in the academic world. The goal is for the relationship between performance and performance evaluation to be high and positive. Good performers should receive good evaluations and maintain their efforts and poor performers should receive poorer evaluations and be thereby motivated to increase their level of performance.[*]

This study was designed to discover how grades for speeches might affect motivation in preparing for future speeches. Educational institutions publish in their catalogs "meanings' of their grading designations. These "meaning tables" assume that students will adopt the meanings of the various grades as their own. There are, however, no good reasons to expect that students assign the same meanings that their teachers believe grades represent. During the seven class days of January 26 through February 3, 1988, students in one-half the 18 sections of the introductory public speaking course were given a questionnaire about their instructors and their class as a part of a test of the effect of early evaluation teaching. Included in that questionnaire were three open-ended questions about a specific grade on a speech. More specifically, the study asks how students view specific grades in terms of their personal feelings about the grade, who they talk to about the grade and what they say, and the effect of the grade on the nature and amount of work they will do for their next assignment.

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[*] There are two chief differences between business evaluation and academic evaluation. First, in business, evaluations occur with less frequency than do evaluations in the basic course classroom. Second, in business the relationship between the person evaluated and the evaluator may go on for four – even a lifetime; it does not end at the end of the term.

PROCEDURES

This study was designed to discover the kinds of feelings, immediate motivations, and long-term motivations students perceived as being associated with the 12 possible grades they might be given for their speeches at a medium sized mid-western university. The 12 possible grades are: A, A-, B+, B, B-, C+, C, C-, D+, D, D-, and F. The questions about each grade were presented in the same way as in this example of the B+ grade:

> You have received a grade of B+ on a speech you have given in class. Please answer each of the questions below.
>
> A. How would you feel about receiving such a grade?
> B. Who would you tell about receiving such a grade?
> C. How would that grade affect your preparation for the next speaking assignment?

For the sake of brevity, these questions will be referred to as Question A, Question B, and Question C throughout the rest of the paper when that is appropriate.

The classes were selected using a random procedure. The order in which the various grades were presented to students was also determined by a random procedure. A minimum of 14 students responded to each grade while the maximum number of responses for one grade was 21. The average number of responses per grade was 17.

The exact response or the gist of the response, if the response was long and redundant, was recorded in each of the three categories for each of the twelve grades. The data contained in these protocols were reduced and analyzed in the following manner.

SCORING

There was no direct method of converting student responses to Questions A and B into a meaningful set of numbers. Independent interpretation of the comments by two judging panels widely separated by time in their judgments, produced de facto independent pools of scores best dealt with by independent statistical analyses. The answers to Question C led to straightforward score assignments requiring independent analysis of those answers to avoid mixing interpretative scoring with direct scoring. The procedure for assigning numerical values to the student answers to Questions A and B was similar, although the time between the two rating sessions was long enough (approximately 12 months) that the two common judges in each session would be unable to remember the ratings from the previous question.

Question A

Each of the responses to the question "How would you feel about receiving such a grade?" were assigned a random number and then sorted by that number into random order. A panel of three expert judges (faculty members with decades of experience in grading students and hearing student responses to those grades), rated each response on a five point scale from 1 "very negative feeling response" to 5 "very positive feeling response". In addition, each judge indicated the grade with which he/she thought the comment would be associated.

The average score for each comment was computed and used as the index of the degree of positive or negative affect of the statement. The comments where resorted back into the grade categories used to generate them, and the total average scores for each grade were computed to generate them, and the total average scores for each grade were computed to indicate the degree of positive or negative affect associated with that grade. This resulted in 12 categories, each with an independent sample of comments from a random sample of students in the public speaking course. After ascertaining that the variances of the groups were homogeneous and that there were no marked departures from normality in the sample, statistical analysis was performed by SPSS-PC using the simple random analysis of variance model followed with Tukey's test for between mean differences. The alpha level selected for all tests was $p < .05$.

Question B

Likewise, each of the responses to the question "Who would you tell about receiving such a grade?" were assigned a random number and then sorted by that number in order to randomize the order in which the items appeared in the rating forms presented to the three judges. The panel of three expert judges (faculty members with an average of decades of experience in grading students and hearing student responses to those grades), rated each response in terms of whether it would be associated with improved performance on subsequent assignments. The scale used was a 5 point scale where 5 was the high score anchored with the statement, "Significantly increases the likelihood of improved performance," through the low score of 1 anchored with the statement, "Significantly decreases the likelihood of improved performance." In addition, each judge indicated the grade with which he/she thought the comment would be associated.

The average score for each comment was computed and used as the index of the degree of likelihood that the behavior described in the protocol would be subsequent speaking performance. The comments were resorted into the grade categories used to generate them, and the total average scores for each grade were computed to indicate the degree of positive or negative affect associated with that grade.

The result was 12 categories, each with an independent sample of comments from a random sample of students in the public speaking course. After ascertaining that the variances of the groups were homogeneous and that there were no marked departures from normality in the sample, statistical analysis was performed by SPSS-PC using the simple random analysis of variance model followed by Tukey's test for between mean differences. The alpha level selected for all tests was $p < .05$.

Question C

The responses to Question C, "What would you do to prepare for your next assignment," were straightforward, and fell into three categories. The responses indicated that the student would "relax" and prepare less, continue to prepare about the same as before or significantly increase preparation behaviors. These responses were scored 1, 2, and 3 respectively. In addition, the number of times students reported that they would consult the instructor before preparing their next speech were counted.

The result was 12 categories, each with an independent sample of comments from a random sample of students in the public speaking course. Statistical analysis was performed on SPSS-PC using the simple random analysis of variance model followed with Tukey's test for significance between mean differences. The alpha level selected for all tests was $p < .05$.

RESULTS

Question A

The F test (see Table 1) indicated overall significance ($p < .001$).

Table 1
Analysis of Variance Grades x Affect

Source of Variance	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	11	132.42	12.04	28.39	.001
Within Groups	184	78.02	.42		
Total	195	210.44			

A Tukey's Multiple-Range (see Table 2) test revealed the precise locations of differences between the group means that produced the significant F.

Table 2
Means of Grade Affect

			4	1	2	3	7	5	6	8	10	9	12	11
Mean	Group		D+	F	D-	D	C+	C-	C	B-	B+	B	A	A-
1.8444	D+	4												
1.9259	F	1												
2.0392	D-	2												
2.0526	D	3												
2.2222	C+	7												
2.2708	C-	5												
2.8148	C	6	*	*	*	*								
2.9259	B-	8	*	*	*	*								
3.5490	B+	10	*	*	*	*	*	*	*					
3.5641	B	9	*	*	*	*	*	*						
4.1556	A	12	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*				
4.2222	A-	11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*				

(*) indicates that pairs of means are significantly different $p < .05$

Figure 1 graphically portrays the relationships among the mean scores with respect to the various grades

The grades of A and A- while not significantly different in affect from each other or the grade of B, are significantly more positive than all the other grades. The grade B while not significantly different from A, A-, B+, B-, or C, is significantly different from C+, C-, D+, D, D-, and F. Because Tukey's pooled estimate variances are not constant from comparison to comparison, the grade B+ while not significantly different from A, A-, B, or B-, is significantly more positive than C+, C, C-, D+, D, D-, or F. B- is more positive than the grades of D+ through F, though not significantly different from the grades above it. The negative affect associated with C+ is not different from C or C-, nor from any D or an F. C, however, is significantly different from the D's and F.

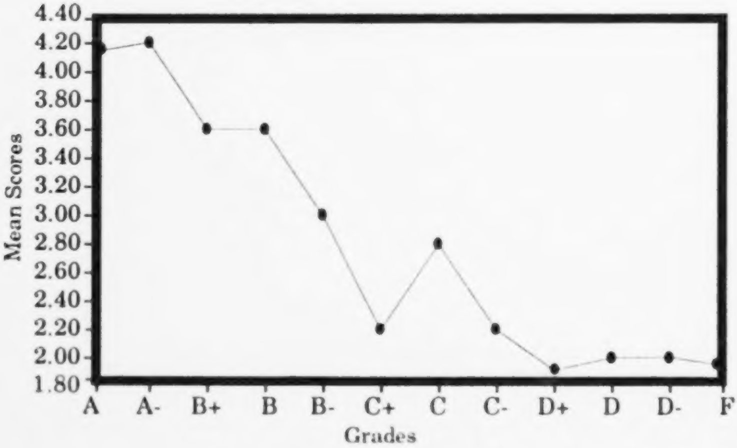

Figure 1. Question A Means

In short, affect scores on the grades seem to group them into three groups: Group I is comprised of A, A-, B+, B all of which are significantly more positive than all the C grades except C+ (with the exception than occurs when B is matched against C). Group II is comprised of B- and C, both of which are significantly less positive than most grades in Group I and more positive than the D through F grades. Group III is composed of C+ combined with the D's and F.

Question B

The overall F was significant (see Table 3) $p < .001$.

Table 3
Analysis of Variance Grades x Short-run Motivation

Source of Variance	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	11	26.44	2.40	6.17	.001
Within Groups	185	72.02	.39		
Total	196	98.46			

A Tukey's Multiple-Range (see Table 4) test revealed the precise locations of differences between the group means that produced the significant F.

Table 4
Means of Grade Short-run Motivation Strength

			12	11	10	2	8	9	4	5	3	6	7	1
Mean	Group		A	A-	B+	D-	B-	B	D+	C-	D	C	C+	F
2.59	A	12												
2.69	A-	11												
3.29	B+	10												
3.33	D-	2	*											
3.33	B-	8	*											
3.36	B	9	*											
3.56	D+	4	*	*										
3.56	C-	5	*	*										
3.65	D	3	*	*										
3.67	C	6	*	*										
3.69	C+	7	*	*										
3.82	F	1	*	*										

(*) indicates that pairs of means are significantly different $p < .05$

Figure 2 graphically portrays the relationships among the mean scores with respect to the various grades

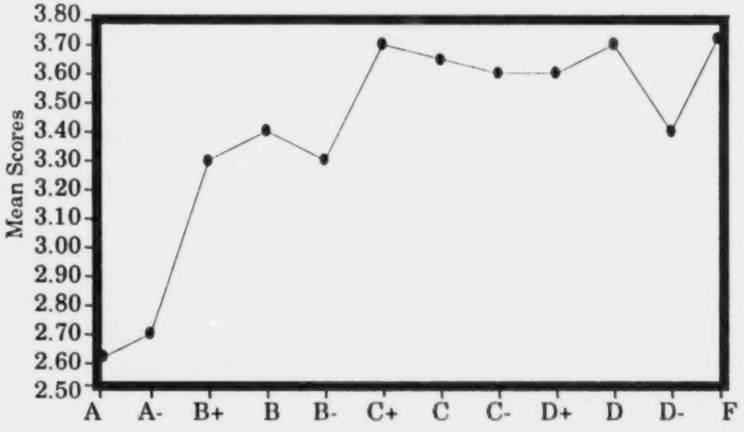

Figure 2. Question B Means

A and A- produced the lowest ratings on the likelihood of improved performance scale, 2.63, and 2.69, respectively. Nine grades produced significantly higher ratings than A, and six significantly higher ratings than A-. The order and strength of the deviations of the nine grades that differed significantly from A were: D- < B- < B < D+ < C- <D < C < C+ < F. The order and strength of the deviations of the six grades from A- were: D+ < C- < D < C < C+ < F. It appears that any grade below a B+ differs significantly in motivational effect from an A and that all varieties of C, the D, and the F differ significantly from the A-. In fact D- and B- are viewed as equally motivating in the sample while B is inferior to both in motivational impact though this effect appears when B is compared with A but does not when compared with A-. B's relationship to the B-, D-, A, and A- is intriguing, but probably due to sampling error. In the analysis in Question A, C+ produced strong negative affective responses, here C+

produces stronger motivational effects than any other grade except F.

Question C

After ascertaining that the variances of the groups were homogeneous and that there were no marked departures from normality in the sample, statistical analysis was performed by SPSS-PC using the simple random analysis of variance model followed with Tukey's test for between mean differences. The alpha level selected for all tests was $p < .05$. The overall F was significant (see Table 5) $p < .001$.

Table 5
Analysis of Variance Grades x Long-run Motivation

Source of Variance	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	11	6.82	.62	5.17	.001
Within Groups	184	22.01	.12		
Total	195	28.83			

The Tukey's tests revealed that while the overall F was significant due to the comparatively large number of subjects, there were no significant differences among the various pairs of means. Nonetheless, the significant overall F makes it worth viewing the plot of the means (see Figure 3) prior to conducting further research on the affects of grades on students.

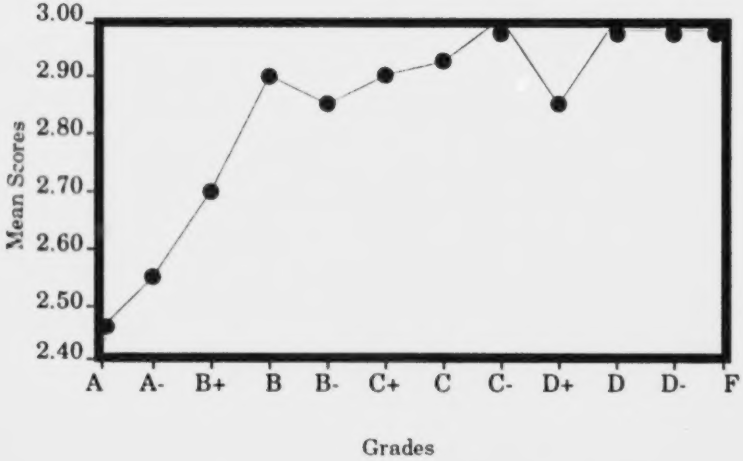

Figure 3. Question C Means

Still, there was no evidence that students perceived any effect of the 12 grades on their longer-range plans for preparing their next assignment. The number of times students mentioned seeking help from instructors appeared to vary somewhat by grade, but a count of the number of times this was mentioned, revealed little actual difference. Grades at the lower end of the distribution produced statements 100 percent of which indicate the intention to work harder, while less than 100 percent indicate an intention to work harder when considering grades at the upper end of the distribution.

DISCUSSION

Question A: Feelings about Grades

Although many faculty may think that they are capable of identifying or classifying their students into as many as 12 meaningful groups, this study offers evidence that students do not necessarily accept those classifications and meanings (Gould, 1981). In terms of their feelings about grades they may receive on speeches, there are only good grades, acceptable grades, and poor grades. B+, C+, and D+, grades instructors might give to encourage the student to try for the next level seem to be interpreted by students as negative and unpleasant. Although the effect is most pronounced on C+, it is somewhat present with B+ and unquestionably present with D+, a grade that had more negative affect associated with it than F. The minus grades go in the opposite direction. Instructors may use them to indicate that work was not quite up to snuff, but student interpretation is that a miss of the lower grade is as good as a mile. A- is slightly better than A, B- beats all variety of C's by a sizable amount, and D- beats F and D+ and is much worse than D.

Question B: Short-term Motivation

The principal finding is that when grades are unacceptable plans directed toward enhanced preparation procedures are significantly increased. Conventional beliefs about rewards and punishments point toward a "U" shaped relationship, with motivation at high levels at both ends of the distribution. People receiving high grades should be motivated to maintain them and people receiving low grades should be motivated to raise them, while those in the middle should have the least motivation. When the answer to this question and to Question A are considered together, they appear to point, instead, toward an initial threshold that begins with the first grade below the B range, C+. The exception appears to be the B and D- grade when A is the level of comparison, but when A- is the comparison level, then all grades below B- (C+ through F) support the idea of a threshold. Once that threshold is passed, then unhappiness increases as do the plans to take appropriate action. Although the relationship between the degree of unhappiness produced by C+ and the grades below it is not linear, the motivational effects are linear, at least when contrasted with the A-. Still, it would appear that the basic course instructor who gave grades in the C range could expect that the students receiving those grades would plan to expend greater efforts on the next assignment.

Question C: Long-term Motivation

The responses to Question C are consistent with the responses to Question B, and support the idea that the grades with maximum motivational effects seem to be the lower grades.

CONCLUSION

Finally, this study dispells the myth that student reactions to grades on their speeches correspond to what instructors may intend in giving those grades. It also runs contrary to myth that higher grades are as much or more motivating than lower grades. It further suggests that grades on performances do have potential motivational impact, and that this impact is far less differentiated than the variety of grades used by instructors. There is good reason to further explore student reactions to grades received on their work on oral performances in basic communication courses as well as explore the effect of grades on other forms of student work. In a broader sense, it may be important to determine whether the "good," "ok," and "poor," trichotomy that operated in response to Question A, carries over to the world outside Universities. And it may be equally valuable in the future to determine whether the "Good Grades – Bad Grades" dichotomy that operated in response to Questions B and C, carries over to the world outside universities. Does business care about the difference between 3.25, 3.10, and a 2.77 grade point average on a 4.00 scale, or is it only graduate programs that would be inclined to distinguish between people that basis?

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A Program of Rater Training for Evaluating Public Speeches Combining Accuracy and Error Approaches

Nancy Rost Goulden

IMPORTANCE OF RATER TRAINING

Educators in general, and public speaking teachers specifically, face the constant challenge of improving their methods of evaluating student achievement. In many beginning public speaking courses, a large portion of the student's final grade is based on grades assigned to individual speeches. In addition, many communication educators find themselves responsible for developing wide-scale speech testing programs to be used for placement or to establish student competency/achievement levels. Oral communication teachers have the responsibility to make these evaluation results as accurate (valid), consistent (reliable) and fair (both valid and reliable) as possible.

One means of improving speech evaluation is a carefully constructed program for training in the scoring of speeches. A deliberate planned program of rater training increases both reliability (Quellmalz, 11) and validity of scores by helping raters remain faithful to already established scoring criteria when rating speeches (Becker, 227). Charney (1984) writing about training of raters of written compositions explains how training creates such fidelity, "Training procedures are designed to 'sensitize' the readers to the agreed upon criteria and guide them to employ those standards, rather than their own" (73).

OVERVIEW AND COMPARISON OF ACCURACY AND ERROR METHODS OF TRAINING

For evaluation of product/performance in both speech and writing, raters are usually trained by what is called the accuracy method. The accuracy method is also common in training raters for psychological counseling. In this method of rater training, the focus is on insuring understanding of the underlying concepts, understanding of the instrument and method of rating, and allowing raters to practice with sample products (Wilson and Griswold, 4). An alternative method of rater training is error training where raters are trained to be aware of and reduce common observer errors.

Wilson and Griswold (1985) set up an experimental study to compare the two training techniques (4-8). It was hypothesized that accuracy training leads to greater validity in rating, and that error training would increase reliability through the reduction of those errors, but at the same time reduce validity. The dual hypotheses were confirmed. Raters trained to identify and avoid errors did so, but the accuracy of their ratings was lower than those trained using the accuracy method. Just knowing what not to do was not sufficient to achieve both validity and reliability.

In the oral communications area, Becker (1970) recommends elements of both accuracy training (i.e., train raters to make finer discriminations) and error training (i.e., insist that raters avoid central tendency) (224). Since the two methods are not mutually exclusive and raters could benefit by improving both reliability and validity, a combined approach seems appropriate.

ACCURACY TRAINING

For accuracy training in evaluating speeches, Gundersen (1978) began with the trainer introducing and demonstrating the variables which were to be scored (402). This was followed by the introduction of taped speeches representing several quality levels. These "anchor" speeches may be analyzed and discussed in the group. Raters then practice scoring, interspersed with frequent discussion, until they reach consensus (Charney, 74).

ERROR TRAINING

Error training includes presentation to the raters description and examples of both errors which originate in the biases of the rater and come out regardless of the scale used and rater errors directly related to the rating scale such as central tendency error and logical error.

Bohn and Bohn (1985) discovered in their study that two types of rater bias error, leniency and halo errors, account for "the majority of the total error variance" (347). Leniency error refers to the tendency of the rater to scale all speakers too high or too low. The "hard graders" or "easy graders" may be consistent in their own ratings, but their scores will not reflect the true value of the performance they are assessing. Halo error may also be positive or negative, but it centers on individual speakers. here the judges' biases will cause them to rate a single speaker inconsistently high or low in relation to the raters' evaluations of other speakers and in relation to the performance's true value. In these rater situations, intrarater reliability may be high (the rater may repeatedly repeat the same errors), but interrater reliability and validity may be low.

The third type of rater error, trait error, is less common (Bohn and Bohn, 347) but does persist for some raters on some traits (Bock and Saine, 236, Bock and Munro, 371). Again raters may rate too stringently or too leniently on a specific trait of the speaker (i.e., eye contact) or a specific trait of the speech itself (i.e., organization). Geyerman and Bock found rater's evaluation of the trait "material" was affected by their attitude valence (9).

The two rater errors related to use of the scale, central tendency error and logical error may still occur even though rating scales are carefully designed to make it more difficult for the rater to clump related items. During the training, raters can be introduced to all of the above rater errors and monitored during practice so they become more aware especially of leniency, halo, trait, and central tendency errors which creep into their scoring.

PROGRAM OF RATER TRAINING

The following rater training program includes (1) general training for scoring speeches incorporating both accuracy and error training and (2) specific training for using an analytic rating scale and training for using a holistic rating scale.

The training session itself consists of lecture or oral reading of a training script by the trainer followed by practice rating of taped speeches using a rating scale or guide. The number of raters trained together in one group should be limited so that all raters have an opportunity to play an active role in the discussion of the "practice ratings". A training session requires between one and two hours depending on the number of anchor speeches from video tape which are viewed, scored and discussed.

Groups need to work with between two and four different speeches. The speeches should represent a range of quality levels. Including both speeches which easily elicit consensus and those which provoke varied responses from the raters provides more thorough training. Speeches on a variety of topics presented by both male and female speakers and speakers whose appearance varies from each other will allow the raters to monitor themselves for halo errors. All speeches should have been prepared to fulfill the same assignment.

SCRIPT FOR TRAINING RATERS TO SCORE PUBLIC SPEECHES

Trainer reads the following script as raters follow silently.

General Introduction

"Assume that for every student speech, there is somewhere a perfect, exact grade. When we determine grades on student speeches, we are trying to get as close to the ideal score as we can. Obviously, we have no way of knowing what that absolutely valid grade is. So we approach the problem from the other direction. We try to eliminate or at least reduce those factors which pull our grade away from the perfect grade. The two general areas which contribute to 'error' are the grading procedures and the grader. In this case, 'error' does not literally mean a 'mistake' but is a term which represents the factors which make up the difference between the 'perfect' grade and the grade which is given."

I. General Training

"Today's training session will consist of three parts. We will consider common rater errors, the criteria for rating and the rating scale, and practice rating using the (either holistic or analytic) method.

Rater Error Training. As graders we each have preconceived ideas about what should be included in a speech and how a speaker should look and sound. At times our personal criteria may be so far from those of other trained, experienced raters of speeches that our ratings are unreliable and invalid. Since we can never directly observe that perfect grade or investigate just how it was determined, the best we can do is compare one rater's scores to the scores of a group of responsible raters. When investigators have made such comparisons, they have discovered that speech raters whose scores deviate extensively from the norm do so because those ratings reflect one or more personal biases about speech grading. Just as with the term 'error,' the word 'bias' here is not a pejorative term. It means the rater's personal preference differs from the majority of raters. If during the training session, you discover that some of your personal standards are causing your scoring to be inconsistent with the scores of other raters, try to put aside your biases when rating with a group. In your classroom, your individual criteria may be appropriate because of the unique experiences and expectations for that class. However, in fairness to your students, especially in a multi-section course, you may discover from the presentation today on Rater Errors some biases which you should be aware of as you grade your own students in your own classroom.

In *Communication Education* October, 1985, Bohn and Bohn reported that two rater errors, called the **leniency error** and the **halo error** 'accounted for the majority of the total error variance' (348). They also identify a third common error, **trait error.**

Leniency error is the 'tendency of the rater to be too easy OR too hard on all speakers.' Although you may suspect (and even be proud of that characteristic of yourself as a grader) you cannot be sure if you are TOO EASY or TOO HARD until you have had an opportunity to compare your grading with other educators scoring the same speeches under the same conditions. Later in today's session as we rate taped speeches for practice, you will be able to compare your ratings with those of the others in the group.

If you are intrinsically a rater who is easily persuaded or always has great sympathy for all speakers, which is then reflected in your grading, you may need to guard against scoring too leniently. Some inexperienced raters who are unsure of their own ratings or are apprehensive about defending their grading, especially in a face-to-face confrontation with their students, grade too leniently to avoid problems.

Hard graders may have developed very stringent standards in the hopes of spurring their students to excellence. In their zeal, these graders may have set almost impossible levels which few, if any, students can reach. Again, today when you compare your scores to other raters, you will get an indication of whether you need to readjust your degree of 'leniency' either positively or negatively.

Halo error is the 'tendency of the rater to be too easy or too hard *on a specific speaker.*' Bock and Bock reported that one manifestation of the halo error is related to gender (6). Both men and women tend to give higher scores to speakers of their own gender than to speakers of the other sex. Another common halo error is inflating the grades of speakers the rater knows and likes. As you rate taped speeches of students you have never met, you may find certain physical attributes or behaviors appeal to you or repel you to the extent that those characteristics cloud your evaluation of the speech.

The rater should try to apply the same standards to all speeches and the performance of those speeches and resist the urge to compensate the speaker for whom the rater feels sorry or elevate a grade just because a speaker 'really seems to be trying.' Responding to the individuality of a speaker is part of the evaluation process. Therefore, guarding against the halo error does not mean that you must reduce grading to a sterile mechanical process that eliminates the humanity (and subsequent uniqueness) of a speaker. Again we are trying to be aware of biases that causes our rating to move out of the mainstream or be unfair to individual speakers.

Trait error is the 'tendency of the rater to be too easy or too hard on a specific trait (category) included in the scale regardless of speakers.' The traits or characteristics of speeches and speakers which are on the rating scale used for this training sessions were chosen by canvassing speech educators and surveying nine popular college-level public speaking texts. Therefore, the traits which are important to you as a rater are probably on the rating forms. however, because of your individual training and experience, you may have a list of 'have-to items,' traits that 'have to' be present in a certain form or at a certain level of excellence. For example, a rater might have decided that it is absolutely essential that all speakers orally identify main points in a preview with numbers ('first, second'). If a student deviates from the form, the speech might as well be over. It really does not matter what else happens. The rater will ignore all other items or manipulate the scoring of those items so that all other aspects of the speech or presentation have no effect on the outcome. Other raters become so concerned about specific delivery behaviors, that those items take on an exaggerated importance and block from the raters' consciousness all other traits.

The speakers you will rate during this training should be judged on the basis of their performances and speeches in relation to their assignment. You will have read what their instructor emphasized when assigning the speech. If you had designed the assignment, you might have included other criteria; however for this training session, try to correlate your expectations with those of the particular assignment.

Even when raters are able to treat each trait as a discrete step in the rating process and faithfully utilize assignment criteria, they may still commit a trait error by creating idiosyncratically high standards for some traits. The raters may consider other traits so unimportant that they become toss-away items – just be sensitive to unwarranted stringency or leniency for individual traits.

Raters may also make trait errors when they let their rating of one trait carry over to other traits because those characteristics are located near each other on the rating scale. In a similar fashion, raters may unintentionally group characteristics which are related to each other (for example, all items which deal with delivery or content) and rate them all the same. (For analytical training: We have tried to organize traits in the order that we assume you will observe that item during the presentation of the speech, rather than in groups of logically related traits.) (For holistic training: This type of trait error is less a factor in holistic rating since you will not be rating individual characteristic separately.)

As we practice rating, try to be aware of your tendencies toward these rating errors. Do not become so overly concerned that you are immobilized as a rater or begin to see faults where none exist. Because of the opportunity to compare your rating with the other raters in your group, you and the trainer may be able to identify the presence of errors which can be reduced and will make you an even more reliable and valid rater. On the other hand, you may find that your rating is relatively free of biases."

Rater ____________________ Speech ____________ Time ____________

Persuasive Speech Characteristic	Rating				
	Present at Excellent Level	Present at Good Level	Present at Satisfactory Level	Present at Inadequate Level	Absent
1. Thesis statement tell what the audience should believe and/or do.	____	____	____	____	____
2. Speaker shows problem is widespread and/or severe.	____	____	____	____	____
3. Speaker defines necessary terms.	____	____	____	____	____
4. Speaker related problem to the audience.	____	____	____	____	____
5. Speaker employs natural delivery style (e.g. conversational, interactional).	____	____	____	____	____

6. Arguments are sufficiently supported with evidence (e.g. relevant, credible, recent.	____	____	____	____	____
7. Speaker shows advantages of solution.	____	____	____	____	____
8. Speaker maintains eye contact.	____	____	____	____	____
9. Speaker cites sources.	____	____	____	____	____
10. Speaker projects confidence.	____	____	____	____	____
11. Speaker states costs and/or benefits for the audience.	____	____	____	____	____
12. Speaker uses language choices that accomplish the speaker's purpose.	____	____	____	____	____
13. Speaker refrains from distracting delivery behaviors.	____	____	____	____	____
14. Speaker addresses potential audience objections.	____	____	____	____	____

15. Speaker avoids weak arguments that do not contribute to acceptance of thesis statement.	___	___	___	___	___
16. Speaker's treatment of issue is responsible (e.g.honest presentation, concern for audience safety and welfare).	___	___	___	___	___
17. Conclusion reinforces thesis statement by means of summary and/or appeal.	___	___	___	___	___
18. Speaker's verbal and nonverbal messages reveal commitment to proposal.	___	___	___	___	___
19. Structure of speech is clear (e.g. preview, transitions, summaries).	___	___	___	___	___
20. Speaker's main points are organized in a persuasive pattern.	___	___	___	___	___

21. Speaker uses voice and body to increase understanding and/or emotional impact. ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

22. Speech fits requirements of assignment (e.g. conviction, actuation, length). ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

Level	Number of Items Marked				
Excellent	____	x	4	=	____
Good	____	x	3	=	____
Satisfactory	____	x	2	=	____
Inadequate	____	x	1	=	____
Absent	____	x	0	=	0
Total	22				____

Figure 1. Analytic Rating Scale

II. Analytic Training

"Analytic scoring of a speech means that the rater records a core for separate characteristics or traits of a speech and the performance of that speech. These individual scores are then combined to produce the overall grade for the speech. The underlying assumption of analytic rating is that a speech is the sum of its parts and by carefully separating the speech into those component parts for consideration during scoring and then recombining the scores, the rater will produce a fair, accurate grade which summarizes the speech and performance.

Accuracy Training. Now please look at the analytic rating scale. There are twenty-two statements describing the elements which make up a classroom persuasive speech and then presentation of that speech. For each speech trait, decide, based on the taped presentation, if the speaker has included that characteristic. You will then determine the degree of the speaker's expertise for the traits present.

At this time, please read through the twenty-two items to make sure that you understand the terminology. Do not yet concern yourself with the levels. (Pause).

Look at the first item. Please note that a 'thesis statement' does not have to be restricted to a rigid word formula but is the speaker's overt statement of the central idea, proposition or claim.

Now read items two and four. The term 'problem' does not have to be used by the speaker orally. A 'problem' represents any situation which the speaker advocates to be changed. And 'solution' (item seven) is the change the speaker advocates.

Next look at item eleven. 'Costs' may include disadvantages or harms which impact on the listeners either as a result of the problem or the solution. 'Benefits' are usually advantages resulting from the proposed solution.

Now read item twenty. Traditional 'persuasive patterns' include: problem-solution, cause-effect, statement of reasons, comparative advantages, criteria-satisfaction and motivated sequence.

Now look through the list of items again and consider how to determine if the trait is present. (Pause).

To distinguish the difference between the presence of a trait at the *Excellent and Good Levels,* assume that the *Good Level* means that the speaker has met expectations. The *Excellent Level* should be awarded when the speaker has gone above and beyond expectations. The *Good Level* is the 'touchstone.' Once you have established that standard in your own mine, you should be able to move down to the *Satisfactory and Inadequate Levels* and up to the *Excellent Level.*

At this time, go through the list one more time and visualize each trait at the *Good Level.* (Pause).

Do the same for the *Inadequate Level.* (Pause).

We are now ready to begin evaluating a speech. The taped speeches are actual classroom speeches from undergraduate university classes. Please review the description of the speaking assignment. (Pause).

You may mark the rating scale either as you listen to the speech or when the speech is finished. Make a check-mark for the level you have chosen for each trait. Count the number of marks for each level and multiply by the factor given on the score sheet on the last page of the rating scale. Then total those products. Record your total score. The purpose of producing a total is so we can compare scores in order to help you determine if you need to adjust your standards of scoring.

Scores from the first speech are collected, and the mean and range calculated and announced. Each rater then reports the numbers of the items from the rating instrument which that rater marked at the *highest* level. In discussion, raters defend their choices. Opportunity is provided for clarification of specific items. Then all raters report the items which they scored at the *lowest* level. These choices are also discussed. The same process is repeated for a second speech. Raters are reminded to be aware of their own rater errors and try to adjust their expectations to correspond with those of the group.

The group may need further practice with a third or fourth speech.

III. Holistic Training

"Holistic rating means that the speech is considered as a whole and that the rater assigns only one score to represent the content of the speech and its presentation The rater does not record any subscores or mark specific characteristics of the speech or speaker. However, the score is not just an arbitrary number drawn out of the air but is the result of matching the speech the rater has listened to with written descriptions of speeches at various levels. However, since the descriptions are rather brief, the rater may automatically factor in characteristics which are not included in the descriptions. Holistic rating is based on the assumption that a speech is more than the sum of its parts and that no rating scale listing the component parts of a speech is complete. Holistic rating therefore can accommodate the unexpected and also allow the rater the latitude to reward uniqueness within the framework of general criteria.

Accuracy Training. Look at the descriptions of speeches at the four levels from *Excellent* to *Inadequate*. As you see, the descriptions have been divided into five categories to help with the comparisons. First read the total description of the *Excellent Level.* (Pause)

EXCELLENT LEVEL Between 80 and 61 points

AUDIENCE AND SITUATION ADAPTATIONS:
Speaker precisely meets requirements of assignment; explicitly points on legitimate relevance and application of issues, problems, solution, and advantages to audience; adopts a responsible position relative to audience.

ORGANIZATION:
Speaker chooses and orally presents, in such a way that audience can effortlessly follow, a pattern of organization that enhances the persuasive purpose of the speech and completely supports the thesis statement.

CONTENT:
Speech leads to inevitable acceptance of speaker's proposal by speaker's presentation of strong, relevant, compelling, valid arguments; an abundance of credible evidence, and powerful emotional and psychological appeals.

LANGUAGE:
Speaker makes language choices which are unfailingly clear, precise, accurate and increase interest and emotional impact of message.

DELIVERY:
Speaker uses extemporaneous, natural delivery style; projects confidence and sincerity. Voice, body movements and eye contact result in direct and effective connection with audience; speaker avoids distracting behaviors.

GOOD LEVEL Between 60 and 41 points

AUDIENCE AND SITUATION ADAPTATIONS:
Speech is within time limits and matches the characteristics of the type of speech assigned. May not be stated explicitly but for the most part, the problem solution, and advantages are relevant and applicable to the audience. Speaker adopts a responsible position relative to the audience.

ORGANIZATION:
Speaker aids the audience in following the structure of the speech; pattern of main points is consistent with persuasive purpose and for the most part supports the thesis statement.

CONTENT:
Speech opens the door for acceptance of speaker's proposal because of speaker's presentation of valid arguments, credible evidence and psychological appeals.

LANGUAGE:
Speaker's language choices contribute to clear understanding; occasionally unique choices increase interest or emotional impact of message.

DELIVERY:
On rare occasions, speaker switches from extemporaneous mode to manuscript or memorized mode. For the most part, delivery is natural and speaker only infrequently shows a lack of confidence or control; voice behaviors and body movements are not major distractions but fail to enhance presentation.

SATISFACTORY LEVEL Between 40 and 21 points

AUDIENCE AND SITUATION ADAPTATIONS:
Assigned speech requirements and characteristics do not match perfectly with this speech. Some, but not all, aspects of the proposal are directly applicable to this audience. While not blatantly irresponsible, speaker's position does not obviously have audience safety and welfare as primary considerations.

ORGANIZATION:
Speaker adheres to a planned structure for the speech which audience can follow although the speaker has not presented obvious previews, summaries or transitions. Some main points may be tangential to the persuasive purpose and the development of the thesis.

CONTENT:
Some arguments and appeals of the speech are acceptable to the audience. Most arguments are valid and supported with some evidence; speaker has included few acceptable emotional or psychological appeals.

LANGUAGE:
Language choices are utilitarian. Occasionally speaker diminishes impact by vagueness or inappropriate choices.

DELIVERY:
Speaker consults notecard frequently; there is some evidence of programmed or stylized delivery or a lack of confidence or control. Occasional vocal problems such as volcalizers, lack of fluency, lack of crisp articulation may be present. Speaker engages in purposeless body movements or remains stiffly rooted in one place.

INADEQUATE LEVEL Between 20 and 0 points

Speech obviously violates assignment constraints; topic or treatment are not appropriate since audience is already in full agreement with speaker's stance or the problem, solution, advantages do not apply to this audience; speaker asks audience to take action which poses threat to audience safety or welfare.

ORGANIZATION:
Speech does not appear to be organized into cohesive discrete blocks under main points. The ideas and their sequence are inconsistent with the speaker's purpose and do not develop the thesis.

CONTENT:
Arguments are weak or fallacious; evidence is lacking or based solely on speaker's personal opinion; emotional and psychological appeals are either absent or dominate to the exclusion of rational appeals.

LANGUAGE:
Speaker uses vague, general language; cannot pronounce or obviously does not understand some terms; uses gender or ethnic terms which show lack of sensitivity to audience; depends heavily on jargon.

DELIVERY:
Speaker reads or recites speech from memory; vocal delivery patterns (repetitive rhythms, pitch, rate, volume) make it difficult for audience to understand or listen to speech; speaker makes little direct contact with audience; distracting behaviors pull listeners away from message.

Figure 2. Holistic Rating Scale

Now read the category of *Audience and Situation Adaptations* for all levels. (Pause).

Now read the category or *Organization* for all levels. (Pause).

Now read the category of *Content* for all levels. (Pause)

Now read the category of *Language* for all levels. (Pause).

Now read the category of *Delivery* for all levels. (Pause).

Keep in mind that although we have just looked at the component parts of speeches, you will score the speech as a whole. Do not record any subscores. You may hear and see speeches which are strong in some categories but weak in others. You job is to find the overall description of the speech which best matches the speech you see and hear. Notice that a range of scores is given for each level. If the speech you are rating matches the description perfectly in all aspects, you would choose a score at the top of the range. If the speech fits the level in a general way, but the fit is not perfect, then you will choose a score within the range but not at the top.

One procedure for scoring holistically is immediately after the speech decide on the general level; then reread that level to verify the match. If the speech matches most categories but obviously not all, do not automatically assume you must move the speech to a lower category. The question is: as a *whole*, where does the speech fit?

We will not practice rating a taped speech. The speeches we will view and score are classroom speeches taped during presentation for the students' class. Now look at the description of the assignment. (Pause).

As you listen to the speech, look at the descriptions and make tentative judgments, but do not write any scores down. As soon as the speech ends, quickly decide on and record your score while the overall impression is fresh."

Scores from the first speech are collected, and mean and range calculated and announced. Individual raters are asked to defend the level of the score they selected by pointing to descriptors of the speech at that level from the holistic instrument. Raters have the opportunity to disagree and support their viewpoint or ask the trainer for clarification. The process is repeated for another speech. Raters should be reminded of rater errors and the need to try to adjust their expectations to correspond with those of the group.

If the trainer determines that the group needs more practice or has not moved toward consensus, a third and/or fourth speech should be viewed and discussed.

The training program can be adjusted for different rating instruments or methods of scoring speeches. Raters can be trained in either the analytic method or the holistic method or both. It is better to train raters to use only one method at a time to avoid confusion. The general training used alone will slight the accuracy approach which is emphasized during the instruction for the practice rating utilizing a specific method, either analytic or holistic. If raters are given free choice as to their scores, but are using uniform criteria, segments of both analytic and holistic rating sections may be used.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF TRAINED RATERS

This program was used in Spring 1989 to train 15 raters, all graduate teaching assistants in a basic public speaking course. Each rater was trained to use both the analytic and holistic rating scales over a period of two months. The raters then independently scored nine speeches using the analytic scale and nine speeches using the holistic scale.

Raw scores for each rater were compared, using Pearson product moment correlation, to all other raters who trained at the same time to determine interrater reliability. Scores for each rater were also correlated with scores on the same speeches determined by a panel of expert judges producing Pearson *r* to establish concurrent validity.

The mean for interrater reliability coefficients for all experimental raters was .861 with a standard deviation of .128. The mean for concurrent validity coefficients for the raters was .82[illegible] with a standard deviation of .138.

The combination of accuracy and error rater training helps speech educators to produce acceptable levels of consistency and accuracy, resulting in more representative scores for speeches for their students.

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Evaluating the Basic Course: Using Research to Meet the Communication Needs of the Students

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The faculty and the director of the basic course ought to be primarily concerned with the extent to which the basic course fulfills the communication needs of their students. however, this is typically not one of the more important concerns of basic course directors when they develop and/or evaluate the courses offered at their institutions. Departmental and program reviews seldom, if ever, look specifically at how well student needs are being met by particular courses. Instead, the major focus for many basic course directors in the developmental and/or evaluation of their courses is on concerns such as course objectives and content, instructional materials and methods, enrollment, staffing, and budget. It is true these concerns are extremely important to the faculty and students of the basic course. However, this concentration on the obvious has resulted in the unfortunate tendency to assume the students' communication needs are being met by the basic course with little evidence to document our claims.

Basic course directors have a number of sources from which to draw information when developing and/or evaluating their courses. Frequent basic course conferences and panels addressing concerns relevant to the basic course give us a fairly good picture of the instructional approaches and content of the basic courses around the country. Apparent trends in instructional patterns, course content and materials, staffing, and administrative support on the national level are reported approximately every four years by the Speech Communication Association (SCA) (Gibson, *et al.*, IV; Gibson, *et al.*, III; Gibson, *et al.*, Reexamination). In fact, a knowledge of basic course operations drawn from the SCA sponsored surveys offers a baseline from which institutions can measure their own course activity (Boileau, 80). Although the SCA reports claim to be nothing more than a record of the current practices reported by the survey respondents, Pearson and Sorenson observed departments frequently use these studies to determine to what extent their curriculum is consistent with the curriculum of other speech communication departments [illegible]. Boileau noted many basic courses are modeled upon what the directors identify as the typical course in the national SCA basic course surveys or even on a memory of their own instructors' approaches (74). However, it cannot automatically be assumed the basic course curriculum represented by the national surveys will adequately fulfill the communication needs of students at every institution.

Understandably, the need to be near the academic mainstream is a very real pressure on basic course directors. Demonstrating that one is following the norm enables directors to counter potential arguments for adaptations in the course and serves as a political tool to aid directors in achieving their goals. We are not advocating that the basic course undergo significant change. Our position, simply stated, is that any evaluation of the basic course ought to include a focus on the outcomes of instruction in that course. In order to do that, we need to make legitimate efforts to determine the extent to which the basic course fulfills the students' communication needs. In fact, an evaluation which demonstrates the basic course meets these needs can also serve as a powerful political tool.

Satisfying the students' communication needs is one of two goals which institutions reportedly attempt to meet in the basic course. The other is to introduce fundamental speech communication theories and principles (Pearson and Sorenson

1). Yet, it seems satisfaction of the communication needs are generally assumed rather than empirically demonstrated, especially when departmental reviews are undertaken. For example, Morlan noted that comments about the following should be included in the final report of a basic course evaluation: staffing, facilities, "textbooks, supplementary materials, question banks for exams, etc. . . . [and if possible] favorable reactions from students" (4). Although evaluation procedures such as value-added assessment or competency based assessment remain controversial, it is obvious that a complete determination of the students' communication needs cannot be achieved without the involvement of those directly affected by that assessment. We agree that communication faculty are academically and professionally qualified to specify the principles and theories of communication to be included in a basic course. However, the students and alumni are in a better position to decide if the course actually meets their perceived communication needs (Pearson & Sorenson 25). If the resource were utilized properly, basic course directors actually have an infinite number of sources by which they can demonstrate their courses meet the students' needs: the students themselves. Students always have and always will evaluate our courses and our teaching. Our only choice in this area is whether we want to use those evaluations to make our courses the best educational experience it can possibly be for future students.

The rationale for evaluating the basic course on the basis of student and alumni feedback is inherent in the purpose of communication education within a liberal arts curriculum. Communication education benefits students by teaching them to reason clearly and communicate effectively in order to transcend any job or any career (Bradley, 4). Communication education enables and empowers students with the knowledge, skills, and motivation they need to produce effective and appropriate communicative behaviors and messages so they may become more effective participants and better citizens in our society. Therefore, when evaluating our courses, we need to ask which communication skills are important, useful, and relevant in producing effective and appropriate messages across a variety of situations, including academic and career performance. We ought to be asking those who have taken our courses how relevant and important are the skills in situations where successful performance is essential.

Determining the communication needs of the students has been a focus for other kinds of investigations by a number of researchers. These studies offer a baseline from which to begin demonstrating that a particular basic course meets the communication needs of students. Johnson & Szczupakiewicz argued although educators have numerous suggestions for course content, we don't know to what extent these skills are used in work related activities, nor do we know the amount of similarity that exists between the skills faculty teach and those which alumni use on the job (132). They found that a nationally representative sample of public speaking instructors and alumni of the basic course differed significantly in their attitudes toward the importance of eighteen specific public speaking skills taught in the classrooms and used on the job. Specifically, they recommended faculty consider increasing the coursework focus on presentational speaking, entertaining speaking, handling questions and answers, and small group discussion. Lohr questioned alumni of the basic course and determined the frequency and importance of fourteen communication activities typically used in the alumni's professions in an effort to generate suggestions for types of skills which should be taught in class (248). The alumni suggested that impromptu "of the cuff" speeches, persuasive speeches, and activities to reduce speaking anxieties be given the most importance in classroom activities. Pearson and Sorenson suggested that student and alumni disagreements on the specific types of public speaking skills which ought to be considered most important, i.e. the interview as an interpersonal communication activity versus small group discussion, are the result of academic versus career performance concerns (21). Becker and Ekdom reviewed a number of studies which surveyed students, alumni, and employers on aspects related to communication skills. They determined that employers rate verbal and written communication skills as the most important skills for professional careers and alumni typically have trouble with public speaking anxiety and interpersonal communication competencies (12-25).

Speaking abilities do not constitute the entire picture of communication skills, albeit they are typically the only ones assessed under the rubric "basic course." Writing, too, is a communication skill which has received some attention in the academic journals. Faigley and Miller assessed the role writing plays in the professional lives of college-educated individuals and found that those employed in technical and professional occupations spent nearly 30% of their total work time engaged in writing (560). The writing consisted of letters written to outside persons or agencies; intercompany letters and memos and reports. The college-educated people strongly recommended that clarity, grammar, mechanics, and usage be emphasized in writing instruction. Other skills highly recommended were organization, idea development, making an impact on audience, vocabulary, adapting to an audience or situation, problem solving, and reading. Similar rhetorical aspects of writing were perceived to be important to a college education according to alumni (Harwood 281-3). Bataille reported alumni on the job write less than two pages over 82% of the time and over one-half of all writing done is to audiences who may know little or nothing about the subject (280). As a result, the role of audience in the writing process is important. Tebeaux noted several studies reported employees write to many audiences and require the use of common rhetorical skills, indicating that successful writing performance is not as job specific as once thought. Tebeaux also recommended educators constantly reassess course content by asking alumni such questions as, "How useful are the skills you learned? How can we make our ... courses more relevant in preparing students for the work place?" (427).

Although a wealthy of information about the types of skills students need for successful academic and career performance can be drawn from the relevant literature, it is only part of the evaluation process. The most important step requires demonstration that the course under review fulfills the communication needs of the students and this can only be achieved with verifiable evidence drawn from a sample of students who have taken that particular course at that particular institution.

Such was the purpose of a recent study undertaken at the University of Iowa. We sought to determine the extent to which specific speech communication and writing skills taught across various sections of the basic course fulfilled the perceived communication needs of students in their coursework and alumni in the workplace. As mentioned earlier, it cannot automatically be assumed the basic course curriculum represented by the national surveys will adequately fulfill the communication needs of students in every institution. This claim is particularly relevant to the basic course curriculum offered at the University of Iowa where both written and speech communication skills are taught simultaneously in the basic course. It may also be equally relevant at institutions where the basic course addresses interpersonal communication skills, as well as public speaking skills.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

A total of 300 questionnaires were sent to a random sample of 100 currently enrolled sophomores, juniors, and seniors who had completed the basic course at the University of Iowa, 100 alumni who had graduated from this same institution between the years 1982-1988, and 100 instructors who were currently teaching the basic course at this same institution. Accompanying each questionnaire was a letter explaining the purpose of the research project and an appeal for participation in the study. All respondents were assured of confidentiality. A follow-up letter was not sent. The instrument consisted of Osgood-type questions, multiple choice questions, and open-ended questions. A total of 53 questionnaires were returned by the instructors, 28 by the students, and 26 by the alumni resulting in an overall response rate of 36%. All data analyses were based on the 107 responses. Groups differed significantly on the perceived importance of writing skills (Wilks Lambda (32,178)=5.96), $p < 0.0001$ and speaking skills (Wilks Lambda (38, 172)=4.94), $p < 0.0001$. These multivariate tests were followed by a series of univariate ANOVAS to determine which specific writing and speaking skills demonstrated significant difference.

Since the basic course at the University of Iowa utilizes the teaching of graduate instructors who develop their own courses based on a general set of guidelines offered by the department, it was important to first determine the specific skills which instructors address in their classes. The instructors' responses to the survey questions provided the basis by which we could assess the nature of the specific communication skills taught in our basic course. The student and alumni responses offered a basis for evaluating the perceived appropriateness and importance of the communication skills taught in the basic course. This information allowed us to determine the extent to which our basic course meets students' perceived communication needs.

RESULTS

Respondents' Characteristics

The instructor respondents were graduate instructors whose teaching experience in the basic course ranged from one to six semesters. The student respondents were, at the minimum, one semester post completion of the basic course and alumni respondents had completed the basic course within the past ten years. The students and alumni cited current majors or current employment in fields such as in business, medicine, pharmacy, nursing, speech pathology, biology, computer science, engineering, sociology, psychology, education, foreign languages, communication, mass media, journalism, art, theater, law graduate research, and the armed forces. The distribution of disciplines was fairly equal among the survey respondents. Due to the low response rate, analyses of differences across demographic factors other than the general acknowledgement of being a student, an alumni, or an instructor of the basic course were not undertaken.

Importance of Writing Skills

The first set of questions assessed the similarity of attitudes among basic course instructors, students, and alumni regarding the importance of numerous writing skills. We asked the instructors, students, and alumni to rate, on an Osgood-type scale (1.7 = not important to very important) fifteen *writing* skills in terms of their importance. The definitions of "importance" noted below for instructors, students, and alumni best fit our conceptualization of the students' communication needs.

The term "importance" was defined for the instructors as how often they taught these skills, how much time they devoted to these concepts, and whether they perceived competence in these skills as essential for students' successful academic and subsequent career performance. Table 1 reveals the instructors rated state and develop a central idea, organization, and conciseness and clarity of expression as the top three skills. The three writing skills rated least important by the instructors were mechanics such as spelling and punctuation, report writing, and memo writing.

"Importance" was defined for the students as how often they used these skills in their coursework, how much of their coursework they devoted to performing these skills, and whether they perceived competence in these skills as essential for successful academic performance. Table 1 shows the students rated the three most important writing skills as: organization, state and develop a central idea, and conciseness and clarity of expression. The three writing skills rated least important were documentation of sources, journal or personal writing, and memo writing.

The term "importance" was defined for the alumni as how often they used these writing skills in their work, how much of their worktime they devoted to performing these skills, and whether they perceived competence in these skill as essential for successful job performance. As Table 1 shows, the alumni rated conciseness and clarity of expression, organization, and grammar as the top three writing skills. The three skills rated least important were revising first drafts, documentation of sources, and journal or personal writing.

Table 1
Importance of Writing Skills
Instructors, Students, and Alumni Comparison of Means

Writing Skills	Instructors	Students	Alumni	F	p
State & develop a central idea	6.47	6.28	5.67	3.01	0.0537
Organization	6.43	6.35	6.30	0.15	0.8605
Conciseness & clarity of expression	6.41	6.21	6.38	0.40	0.6709
Use of supporting material	6.39	6.07	5.96	1.50	0.2269
Expositional or informative writing	6.22	5.39	5.43	5.07	0.0079
Adapting to intended audience	6.22	5.46	5.84	3.74	0.0270
Revising first drafts	6.05	5.43	4.92	5.38	0.0060
Argumentative/ persuasive writing	6.05	5.32	5.00	5.04	0.0081
Documentation of sources, footnotes	5.49	5.17	4.00	5.90	0.0037
Editing & proofreading	5.37	6.00	5.50	1.56	0.2158
Journal or personal writing	5.09	3.85	3.61	7.57	0.0009
Grammar (standard English)	4.92	6.03	6.11	8.72	0.0003
Mechanics (spelling, punctuation)	4.81	5.96	5.88	7.17	0.0012
Report writing	4.07	5.42	5.26	7.57	0.0009
Memo writing	1.90	3.21	5.46	56.96	0.0001

Note: (f 2, 104)

Significant differences occurred between the mean ratings instructors, students, and alumni assigned to the following writing skills: expositional or informative writing, adapting to intended audience, revising first drafts, argumentative or persuasive writing, documentation of sources, journal or personal writing, grammar, mechanics, report writing, and memo writing

We asked the instructors, students, and alumni to rate on a scale of 1-7 (not appropriate to very appropriate) the extent to which they perceived the writing skills taught in the basic course were appropriate for the students' current and future communication needs. The instructors' mean rating was 6.18, students' mean 4.57, and alumni mean 4.50 ($F = 17.15$, $p = 0.0001$).

Importance of Speech Communication Skills

The second set of questions assessed the similarity of attitudes among basic course instructors, students, and alumni regarding the importance of numerous *speech communication* skills. We asked the instructors, students, and alumni to rate, on an Osgood-type scale (1-7 = not important to very important) fifteen speech communication skills in terms of their importance to instruction in the basic course, the workplace, and coursework, respectively. The definitions for importance were the same as for the writing skills. Table 2 shows the instructors rated listening, organizing the speech, and small group discussion as the top three speech communication skills. The three skills rated least important were handling questions and answers, interviewing, and outlining.

As Table 2 shows, the students rated listening, small group discussion, and interpersonal skills as the three most important skills. The three least important skills were persuasive speaking, interviewing, and analyzing audiences.

Table 2 also shows the alumni rated the three most important speech communication skills as interpersonal skills, handling questions and answers, and listening. The three least important skills were organizing the speech, analyzing audiences, and interviewing.

Table 2
Importance of Speech Communication Skills
Instructors, Students, and Alumni
Comparison of Means

Speaking Skills	Instructors	Students	Alumni	F	p
Listening	6.03	5.28	6.26	3.92	0.0229
Organizing the speech	6.01	4.85	5.07	5.42	0.0058
Small group discussion	5.98	5.25	5.53	2.14	0.1223
Informative speaking	5.96	4.64	6.00	8.36	0.0004
Persuasive speaking	5.79	4.64	5.65	4.90	0.0093
Analyzing audiences	5.79	4.35	4.92	8.19	0.0005
Gathering support materials	5.73	5.07	5.50	1.60	0.2066
Presentational speaking	5.62	5.14	5.96	1.84	0.1639
Delivery	5.28	5.07	6.03	2.74	0.0689
Overcoming nervousness	5.20	5.00	5.19	0.12	0.8852
Interpersonal skills	5.09	5.21	6.34	4.68	0.0113
Handling questions and answers	5.00	5.17	6.26	5.38	0.0060
Interviewing	4.09	4.60	4.69	1.16	0.3162
Outlining	3.92	4.85	5.11	4.24	0.0170

Note: (f 2, 104)

Significant differences occurred between the mean ratings instructors, students, and alumni assigned to the following speech communication skills: listening, organizing the speech, informative speaking, persuasive speaking, analyzing audiences, interpersonal skills, handling questions and answers, and outlining.

We asked the instructors, students, and alumni to indicate the extent to which they perceived the speech communication skills taught in the basic course were appropriate for the students' current and future communication needs. The instructors gave the basic course speech communication skills an overall rating of 5.58, students 4.25, and alumni 4.53 ($F = 5.35$, $p = 0.0061$).

Importance of Speech Communication Delivery Styles

Table 3 reports the mean ratings instructors, students, and alumni assigned to the importance of delivery styles taught in the basic course and used in academic coursework and/or and the workplace. The instructor, student, and alumni ratings indicate extemporaneous and impromptu delivery are perceived to be the two most important delivery styles. However, all groups differed significantly in their ratings of all four delivery styles.

Table 3
Importance of Speech Delivery Styles
Instructors, Students, and Alumni
Comparison of Means

Delivery Style	Instructors	Students	Alumni	F	p
Extemporaneous - delivery	6.15	4.57	4.53	11.64	0.0001
Impromptu delivery	4.47	4.75	5.84	5.23	0.0068
Manuscript delivery	2.45	3.78	3.26	5.86	0.0039
Memorized delivery	1.92	3.71	4.34	19.73	0.0001

Preferences for Emphasis of Basic Course

We asked the respondents to indicate their preference for the emphasis of the basic course. Five possible choices were given: speaking only, writing only, critical reading only, combined speaking and writing, and combined speaking, writing, and critical reading. Table 4 shows the majority of the instructors rated a combination of speaking, writing, and critical reading skills as the preferred emphasis for the basic course. The students and alumni indicated a preference for a combination of speaking and writing with a combination of speaking, writing, and critical reading rated second.

Table 4
Preferences for Emphasis of Basic Course

Emphasis	Instructors	Students	Alumni
Speaking	3.8%	0%	0%
Writing	13.2%	7.1%	0%
Critical reading	15.1%	7.1%	0%
Combined speaking & writing	3.8%	39.3%	53.8%
Combined speaking, writing, & critical reading	62.3%	35.7%	46.2%
Other	30.2%	14.3%	0%

Preferences for Focus of Basic Course Instruction

Table 5 shows among the three choices listed as potential approaches to basic course instruction, the respondents strongly preferred more practice or performance than theory.

Table 5
Preferences for Focus of Basic Course Instruction

Focus	Instructors	Students	Alumni
More practice/performance than theory	60.4%	64.3%	76.9%
More theory than practice/performance	1.9%	0%	0%
Equal blend of theory & practice/performance	35.8%	35.7%	23.1%

General Questions

Degree of consistency in instruction across sections of the basic course is an often discussed issue in an institution where the instructors develop their own courses under general departmental guidelines. To assess the extent to which the instructors perceived instruction was consistent across sections, we asked the instructors to rate their perceptions on a scale of 1-7 (very inconsistent to very consistent). The mean rating was 2.73. We also asked them how desirable it would be to have instruction consistent across sections. The mean rating for this response was 3.60.

Similar to many other institutions, the basic course at the University of Iowa is a required course. We were interested in estimating the degree to which those who are required to take the basic course perceive it to be satisfactory compared to their other General Education Requirements. We asked the students and alumni to rate on a scale of 1-7 (very disappointed to very satisfied) their level of satisfaction with the basic course compared to the other courses they took to fulfill their other General Education Requirements at the University of Iowa. The mean rating for the students was 4.21. The mean rating for the alumni was 4.61.

Finally, we asked all three groups to indicate whether or not the basic course should continue to be required for all students. The response was a resounding yes from 96.2% of the instructors, 92.3% of the alumni, and 82.1% of the students.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine if students and alumni perceived the basic course at the University of

Iowa prepared them with communication skills they need for successful performance in their coursework and/or work related activities. The instructors' responses provided the basis by which we could assess the nature of the specific communication skills taught in the basic course. The student and alumni responses offered a basis for evaluating the perceived appropriateness and importance of the communication skills taught in the basic course and whether these skills meet their communication needs.

Although statistically significant differences were found between many of the speech communication and writing skills which instructors, students, and alumni thought were important, the vast majority of skills were rated well above the mean. This indicates all three groups perceive the communication skills taught in the basic course at the University of Iowa are important to successful academic and professional performance and appear to adequately respond to the students' communication needs. However, statistically significant differences among the responses indicate a need for reassessment regarding the emphasis on some skills compared to others in the basic course curriculum.

Writing Skills

The writing skills which students and alumni rated as significantly more important for successful academic and/or career performance than did instructors include: grammar, mechanics, report writing, and memo writing. This may indicate to basic course faculty the need for more emphasis on the skills of standard English usage, spelling, and punctuation which instructors often assume are already mastered by the time students reach college. It is not surprising that memo writing was not considered as important by the instructors as it was by the alumni since this is a highly job specific skill. Although report writing could be considered a skill which ought to follow naturally from some of the other writing skills, such as developing a central idea, organization, clarity of expression, etc., the data demonstrate this skill is apparently important to students and alumni and the basic course faculty might consider devoting more classroom time to its discussion and application.

The writing skills which students and alumni rated as significantly less important than did instructors include: expositional or informative writing, adapting to intended audience, revising first drafts, argumentative or persuasive writing, documentation of sources, and journal or personal writing. One reason for this disparity could stem from a lack of need for these skills in the students' academic coursework outside of the basic course instruction. Perhaps the students and alumni are not required to utilize these writing skills in their classes and careers as often as assumed. Of note, however, is the degree of agreement between the instructor and alumni ratings regarding the importance of adapting to intended audience. This is consistent with Bataille's finding that over one-half of all writing on the job is directed to audiences outside one's immediate field (280). Perhaps the students' ratings are significantly lower than the instructors' ratings of this particular skill because the students rarely write for audiences other than their instructors.

Speech Communication Skills

The students and alumni rated several speech communication skills as statistically more important than did instructors. These include interpersonal skills, handling questions and answers, and outlining. The basic course faculty might consider devoting more classroom time to the skills of outlining and handling questions and answers as they are vital to giving organized presentations. As noted earlier, alumni often use handling questions and answers skills in the workplace (Johnson and Szczupakiewicz, 135). Also interpersonal skills are among the top three factors rated as most important for successful job performance (Becker and Ekdom; Weitzel and Gaske; Curtis, Winsor, and Stephens). It is impossible that interpersonal skills are not rated highly by the instructors because they assume these skills are being practiced in small group discussion (a skill ranked third among the instructors' ratings). But the importance of this skill should not be taken lightly. In an open-ended response section on the survey, an alumnus stated that "person to person speaking" was a speaking skill he or she used frequently at the workplace. Another alumnus wrote, "The most emphasis should be put on . . . honing interpersonal skills."

A few speech communication skills were rated as significantly less important by the students and alumni compared to instructors' ratings. These include organizing the speech and audience analysis. Perhaps these disparities stem from the lack of opportunities students and alumni are given to apply these skills in their academic coursework and workplaces, respectively. Many of the courses students take at a large university are conducted by lecture which preclude the occasion for small group discussion or individual presentations. Similarly, many careers and jobs do not require public speaking or perhaps presentations given at work are to a well-known audience and do not require extensive preparation or organization. This might explain why the alumni rated audience analysis for the purposes of writing as more important than their rating of audience analysis for the purposes of speaking.

Of note, however, is that student and alumni perceptions of listening, informative speaking, and persuasive speaking skills differed in that the alumni rated these skills as more important than did the students. The alumni ratings were also higher than the instructors' ratings of these three speech communication skills. It might be that these particular speech communication skills are more important for successful career performance than academic performance. Given that these particular skills are a few of the more essential communication skills the basic course attempts to address, this finding presents an interesting dilemma for educators and suggests the need to examine the opportunities for speech communication across the curriculum.

Speech Communication Delivery Styles

The findings regarding speech communication delivery styles suggest that students and alumni consider the majority of delivery styles to be more important than instructors indicate. Johnson and Szczupakiewicz reported all four delivery styles are used frequently by alumni in the workplace (135). Memorized delivery, in particular, was rated significantly higher by students and alumni. An interesting finding was the significant difference in ratings instructors, students, and alumni assigned to the perceived importance of extemporaneous delivery. While the instructors perceived this was the most important speaking style, the students and alumni rated extemporaneous delivery significantly lower. The basic course faculty might reconsider the attention given to these speech delivery styles in an effort to reflect the emphases indicated by the students and alumni.

General Preferences

The basic course at the University of Iowa currently emphasizes a combination of speaking, writing, and critical reading. The instructors strongly indicated they preferred this emphasis, but the students and alumni did not share this opinion. They indicated a slight preference for speaking and writing without critical reading. Perhaps the reason for this finding is the result of this survey failing to include an assessment of the critical reading skills students and alumni perceive to be important in their coursework and workplace, respectively. Because the questionnaire did not address this issue, the students and alumni may gave responded in kind, i.e. indicating a slight preference for speaking and writing without reading. However, this finding may also stem from a lack of effective instruction in critical reading or perhaps it is the result of the students and alumni not understanding the role reading skills play in the ability to write and speak well. The basic course faculty ought to consider possible answers and responses to this question. Importantly for us, all three groups reported an overwhelming preference for our current integrated approach to the teaching of the basic course as opposed to the teaching of separate courses in writing and speaking.

Another important finding was the overwhelming agreement regarding the preference for more practice or performance than theory in basic course instruction. This finding is consistent with national trends in basic course instruction where 65% of the basic course directors surveyed reported their instruction consisted of more than a 40-60% ratio of theory to performance (Gibson, *et al.*, 285).

Finally, in spite of the fact that instructors perceived instruction across sections of the course was highly inconsistent, they indicated it was undesirable to achieve consistency. One instructor wrote "It is my impression that instruction in the basic course is consistent in so far as the departmental guidelines are usually addressed and fulfilled. There is great inconsistency, however in pedagogical beliefs and strategies used in attaining goals set by the department. This makes sense to me. Although the department has a wide variety of teaching philosophies, styles, and temperaments at work, I've found this mixture to be healthy, democratic, and stimulating." Students and alumni rated the course positively compared to the other courses they took to fulfill their General Education Requirements, and strongly indicated a preference for continuing the basic course as a requirement for graduation at the University of Iowa.

Summary

The data reported in this survey offers a fairly clear picture of the specific communication skills which are taught in the basic course at the University of Iowa and perceived as important by students and alumni for successful academic and career performance. It also offers a baseline from which we can measure and evaluate our own course activity. The positive evaluation of the course overall and the generally high ratings of importance the students and alumni assigned to many of the specific writing and speaking skills assessed in this study provide one kind of evidence supporting the claim that the basic communication course offered at the University of Iowa satisfies the students' perceived communication needs.

Obviously, students need the skills which have been identified by experienced faculty as those necessary to help them succeed in their academic coursework. However, they also need communication skills which will carry over after graduation to ensure success in their chosen professions. Through research, including the studies reported in this paper

and by undertaking their own surveys such as this investigation, departments can identify where current lapses exist between those skills taught in the basic communication course ant those which students and alumni consider to be important for satisfying their communication needs. It is likely the ratings given for the perceived appropriateness of the communication skills taught in the basic course would improve if the faculty enhanced the course curriculum to reflect the suggestions noted in their own surveys. Although the ideal situations would allow for all of the necessary and requested skills to be addressed, it is an extremely optimistic assumption. The basic course at many institutions is only one term in length for the majority of students and not all the skills can be taught to a mastery level. Fortunately, there are usually other, more specific and more advanced communication courses offered which take up where the basic corse leaves off. Also, at many institutions the students' other general education courses are required to provide additional opportunities for students to develop their writing and speaking skills.

FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Studies of this nature ought to be conducted by more institutions offering a basic communication course. Not only would the information allow departments to determine whether their particular course meets the communication needs of their students, but it could also provide a data base from which to identify similarities and differences in students' communication needs across institutions. For those who do undertake such a study, it is recommended information be obtained to understand why the discrepancies occur between what instructors think are important skills and those identified as important by students and alumni. For example, it could be that instructors presume skills such as grammar, mechanics, and interpersonal skills are already mastered by the time students enter college and this is reflected in their ratings. If these assumptions are true, then perhaps future research ought to analyze the instruction of secondary schools and determine why this necessitates the basic course act as a school correction program.

The student and alumni perceptions ought to be critical to decisions the faculty make about the emphases, various rhetorical concepts, and practices received within the basic course. It is apparent the faculty of the basic course are concerned with the content and structure of the course as evidenced by the SCA surveys published every four years. What is not apparent in the literature is whether the faculty are equally concerned with identifying and satisfying the students' communication needs. In order to accurately meet the communication needs of the students we must first know the nature of those needs. This investigation reflects an attempt to identify legitimate student needs in order to build a curriculum which not only reflects the beliefs of the basic course director, but also satisfies the students' communication needs and prepares them for the "skilled presentation of ideas in a competitive society" (Gibson, *et al.*, IV, 290).

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The Basic Course: What do We Know? What do We Need to Know? Where do We Go from Here?

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David L. Kosloski

Each year, thousands of students pass through a variety of "basic courses" in speech communication. Some of thee basic courses present an overview of the field of speech communication and an introduction to the research and theory that form the basis for our field. Others are hybrid or blend courses than provide information about at least three basic content areas: interpersonal communication, small group communication, and public speaking. Still others are considered the "basic" course because they provide the introduction to a specific topic area: interpersonal communication, public speaking, small group communication, organizational communication, intercultural communication or mass media.

Whatever their specific form and content, basic courses account for a very significant percentage of student credit hour generation in speech communication (Buerkel-Rothfuss and Gray 1989a, 1989b, 1990). Most important, they provide what may be the first – and last – taste of the field of speech communication for the vast majority of undergraduates at a given institution. Basic courses serve as the recruiting ground for majors and minors and they provide information about our field for nonmajors; what students perceive to be true about speech communication as a discipline, and whether or not they value that information, may well have been learned in a basic course.

To date, the research that has been conducted in and about the basic corse both in speech communication and in noncommunication disciplines has been fragmented and generally nontheoretical. Although many studies have been reported, most are either opinion-based or are limited to experience with a specific program. Very few have examined variables from more than one basic course. Most important for this paper, few systematic attempts to integrate findings and propose a program of basic course research for the future have been made. Seiler and McGukin (1989) drew the following conclusion: "Our examination of basic course literature reveals that instructors and directors do not have sufficient empirical support on which to design the course. The basic course . . . is organized . . . on tradition and experience rather than theory or research. The net result is that we do not know what is the most effective approach to organizing and teaching the basic course" (35).

The general goal of this paper is to begin to address this needed research agenda for the 1990s. In particular, two reviews of literature underlie the methodology herein: a review of literature on basic courses outside of speech communication and a similar review within this discipline. The reviews were undertaken with the intent of attempting to identify the array of variables that have been investigated relative to the basic course and to provide guidelines for how research might proceed in the next decade. Both reviews have been organized into a single research typology to better serve this purpose (see Table 1).

The specific goals for the paper were the following: 1) to identify variables related to the basic course that have been studied outside of our field; 2) to identify basic course variables investigated by speech communication writers/researchers; 3) to provide a typology of basic course variables that may be studied in the future; 4) to identify several theoretical frameworks within which to conduct some of this research; and 5) to identify a research agenda for the

1990s. In particular, the process of identifying a research agenda was one of suggesting possible theoretical frameworks not currently used in basic course research as potentially fruitful avenues for exploration. Since much of the research reviewed for this paper tended to be from education-based or interpersonal perspectives, the theoretical frameworks presented include some from organizational communication: an area not yet fully explored in terms of its heuristic value for basic course researchers.

A TYPOLOGY OF BASIC COURSE VARIABLES

To identify key variables related to research within speech communication basic courses, as well as outside of the discipline, all materials 1) published in journals or newsletters, 2) published in book form, and/or 3) available through the ERIC data-base system during the past 10 years were selected for the analysis, as well as materials presented at the most recent SCA conventions that may not yet be available through the ERIC system. In some cases, older materials were included if they appeared to be of special significance to our goals.

Combining the variable identified in noncommunication publications with those identified for speech communication, it would appear that researchers in our discipline have considered many, but certainly not all, of the concepts identified by researchers outside of our discipline. In particular, the category scheme presented in Table 1 includes all variables identified from the combined reviews of literature.

TABLE 1

Research in the Basic/Introductory Course in Speech Communication and Noncommunication Disciplines

Category		References		Comments
General Characteristics of Basic Speech Communication Courses	1.	Gibson, Gruner, and Kline 1974; Gibson, Gruner, Hanna, Hayes, and Smythe 1980; Gibson, Hanna, and Huddleston 1985; Hanna 1989; Trank 1983.	1.	**Examination of the basic course using a descriptive, survey approach.**
	2.	Pace and Ross 1983.	2.	**Survey of basic organizational communication courses.**
	3.	Harcourt, Krizan, and Aldridge 1984	3.	**Research on basic business communication courses.**
	4.	Beebe and Biggers 1986.	4.	**Survey analysis of intercultural basic courses.**
History/Evolution of the Basic Speech Communication Course	1.	McQuillen and Ivy 1982; Gray 1984; Gray 1989.	1.	**Examination of the evolution of the basic course over the past 30 years.**
	2.	Auer 1989; Gibson 1989; Hugenberg, 1989; Morlan 1989.	2.	**History of the basic course.**
Philosophical Approaches to the Basic Speech Communication Course	1.	Griggs and Shannon 1982.	1.	**Argument for use of Bruner's approach to learning.**
	2.	Nelson 1983	2.	**Argument for use of Burke's pentad.**
	3.	Arnette 1982.	3.	**Argument for use of dialogue and interactive techniques.**
	4.	Weaver and Cotrell 1989.	4.	**Philosophical decisions facing the basic course director.**
	5.	Logue 1988.	5.	**Approaches to teaching organization.**
	6.	Dean and Levasseur 1988.	6.	**Approaches to teaching presentation skills.**
	7.	Boone and Karns 1988.	7.	**Approaches to teaching critical skills.**
Philosophical Approaches (Non-communication)	1.	Larson and Nappi 1976; Irion 1976.	1.	**Comparison/contrast of approaches to the basic course.**
Specific Approaches (Non-communication)	1.	Barger 1987.	1.	**Thematic approach to the basic course.**
	2.	Johnson 1979.	2.	**Student goal-setting.**
	3.	Bard 1986; Borchardt 1987; Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Krefetz 1979; Mayer 1986.	3.	**Attention to critical thinking (variety of disciplines).**
	4.	Gould 1984; Hosen 1978; Kline 1977; Morrill 1977; Wittig, 1985.	4.	**Problem-solving approach (variety of disciplines).**
	5.	Arger and Clinton 1986; Bard 1986; Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Long 1981;	5.	**Comparison/contrast of skills-oriented approach (variety of disciplines).**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	Madigan, Brosamer, and Plourde 1987; Press 1979; Sheridan 1982; Solon 1979.	
Teaching Strategies in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Downs, Javidi, and Nussbaum 1988; Gorham and Christophel 1990.	**1. Use of humor and immediacy.**
	2. Bradley 1970; Bush, Bittner, and Brooks 1972; Goldhaber and Kline 1972.	**2. Incorporation of audio-visual materials.**
	3. Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, and Yerby 1986; Weaver and Michel 1984.	**3. Use of lecture vs. group discussion.**
	4. Hess 1981.	**4. Use of case studies.**
	5. Patterson 1969.	**5. Use of experiential activities.**
	6. Schwartz 1989.	**6. Requiring journal-writing.**
	7. Friedrich 1983b.	**7. Use of model speeches.**
	8. Hanna 1974.	**8. Integrating programmed instruction.**
	9. Staton-Spicer and Bassett 1980.	**9. Incorporating mastery learning.**
	10. Stelzner 1975.	**10. Use of contract grading.**
	11. Miles 1977.	**11. Creating a practical final exam.**
	12. Rubin 1983.	**12. Selecting from a variety of styles.**
	13. Friedrich 1983a.	**13. Skills-oriented vs. function-oriented.**
	14. Faules, Littlejohn, and Ayres 1972.	**14. Performance-oriented vs. theory-based.**
	15. Austin 1989; Oehlke 1989.	**15. Emphasizing student participation.**
	16. Hugenberg 1988.	**16. Meeting needs of students.**
	17. Sypher 1988; Berube 1989.	**17. Use of laboratory/videofeedback.**
Teaching Strategies (Non-Communication)	1. Newall 1978.	**1. Self-paced instruction.**
	2. Fisher, Guenther, MacWhinney, Sorenson, and Stewart 1977.	**2. Video-autotutorial instruction.**
	3. Goldman, Fishel, and Hobart 1975; Morrill 1977; Tobias 1988.	**3. Peer-instruction (variety of disciplines).**
	4. Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Moore and Silverman 1980.	**4. Interdisciplinary team-teaching.**
	5. Brock 1976.	**5. Overcoming a variety of student problems in the large lecture format.**
	6. Mayer 1986.	**6. Comparison/contrast of strategies.**
	7. Krefetz 1979; Hosen 1978.	**7. Incorporating research methodology into the basic course.**
Effects of Taking the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Stacks 1975; Stacks and Stone; Newburger and Brannon 1989.	**1. On self-concept.**
	2. Gray et al. 1986; Stacks and Stone 1984;	**2. On expressing high communication apprehension.**
	3. Stacks and Stone 1984.	**3. On self-disclosure.**
	4. Trank and Steele 1983.	**4. On skills.**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	5. Gray et al. 1986; Gray, Buerkel-Rothfuss, and Thomas 1989; Crawford 1983; Vallin 1989.	**5. On perceived improvements in communication skills.**
	6. Gray et al. 1986; Gray et al. 1989.	**6. On attitudes toward various communication skills and course components.**
Effects of taking the Basic Course (Noncommunication)	1. Gutman 1979.	**1. On student's misbeliefs about the discipline.**
	2. Senn 1977.	**2. On attitudes toward the discipline.**
	3. Hosen 1978.	**3. On student political participation.**
	4. Collins, M. J. 1980; Ferguson 1980; Gould 1984; Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Johnson 1979; Krefetz 1979; Morrill 1977; Newall 1978; Schaffer and Purohit 1975; Travers 1978; Wittig 1985.	**4. On student attitudes toward research and/or further study in the discipline and on career choice (variety of disciplines).**
	5. Bard 1986; Borchardt 1987; Mayer 1986.	**5. On development of critical thinking skills.**
	6. Arger and Clinton 1986; Long 1981; Press 1979; Solon 1979.	**6. On reading, writing, and study skills of the traditional student.**
	7. Sheridan 1982.	**7. On skills of the nontraditional student.**
Affective Outcomes of the Basic Course as Variables (Noncommunication)	1. Borchardt 1987.	**1. Class participation.**
	2. Fisher et al. 1977; Newhall 1978; Schaffer and Purohit 1975; Senn 1977; Wittig 1985.	**2. Course satisfaction.**
	3. Brock 1976; Morrill 1977.	**3. Student anonymity.**
	4. Kline 1977; Overall and Marsh 1977.	**4. Instructor satisfaction.**
Instructor Variables in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Hughey and Harper 1983.	**1. Differences between supportive and competitive instructors.**
	2. Williamson and Pier 1985.	**2. Relationship between instructor degree status and students' final grades.**
	3. Wallace and Morlan 1989.	**3. Instructor interaction and credibility.**
	4. Hugenberg 1983.	**4. Student expectations of teacher affect.**
	5. Smilowitz and Phelps 1989.	**5. Relationship between instructor social styles and student learning styles on perceptions of instructor credibility.**
	6. Rosenfield 1985.	**6. Perceived instructor sexism and students' perceptions of classroom climate.**
	7. Cheatham and Jordan 1972.	**7. Use of GTAs in public speaking courses.**
	8. Buerkel-Rothfuss and Gray 1989b, 1990.	**8. Comparison of GTA training in communication vs. noncommunication depts.**
	9. Nadler 1985.	**9. GTA autonomy.**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	10. Trank and Shepherd 1987	**10. GTA involvement in textbook selection.**
	11. Richmond, McCroskey, Kearney, and Plax 1987	**11. Investigation of a range of instructor variables.**
	12. Gibson et al. 1974; Gibson et al. 1980; Gibson et al. 1985	**12. Information about various instructor "types" teaching the basic course.**
Instructor Variables (Non-communication)	1. Kline 1977	**1. Amount of preparation in tenured vs. non-tenured faculty.**
	2. Brock 1976	**2. Writing legibility and lecture effectiveness vs. course satisfaction.**
Student Variables in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Heimstra and Staton-Spicer 1983	**1. Concerns about communication.**
	2. McCroskey 1984; McCroskey and Andersen 1976; McCroskey, Daly, Richmond, and Falcione 1977; Pelias and Pelias 1988; Powers and Smythe 1980; Bourhis, Berquist and Lynch 1989	**2. Level of communication apprehension.**
	3. Hugenberg 1983; Thomas, Buerkel-Rothfuss, and Gray 1988; Weaver and Cotrell 1988.	**3. Motivation, gender.**
	4. Wenzlaff 1988.	**4. Learning styles.**
	5. Heimstra and Staton-Spicer 1983.	**5. Concerns for self, task, type of basic course.**
	6. Hugenberg 1983.	**6. Expectations.**
	7. Ross and Stokes 1984.	**7. Needs of nontraditional students.**
	8. Schliessman 1985; Yook and Seiler 1989	**8. Needs of nonnative speakers.**
	9. Wenzlaff 1988.	**9. Preferences of "honors" students.**
	10. Rosenfield 1985.	**10. Perceptions about classroom climate.**
	11. Hughey and Harper 1983.	**11. Cognitive and affective outcomes of taking the basic course.**
	12. Gray et al. 1986; Kneupper and Williams 1983.	**12. Self-perceptions of improvement.**
	13. Seiler 1983; Gray et al. 1989.	**13. Degree to which self-perception of improvement is credited to basic course.**
	14. Pearson, Nelson, and Sorenson 1981.	**14. Alumni's preferred format of instruction.**
	15. Rubin 1983.	**15. Communication competence.**
	16. Wallace and Morlan 1989.	**16. Involvement in course material.**
	17. Smilowitz and Phelps 1989.	**17. Study habits, assertiveness, responsiveness, and learning styles.**
	18. Gray et al. 1989.	**18. Preferred teaching styles.**
	19. Thomas 1988.	**19. Development of questioning skills.**
Student Variables (Non-communication)	1. Hosen 1978; Kreletz 1979	**1. Level of political awareness.**
	2. Gutman 1979; Lamal 1979	**2. Misconceptions about the discipline.**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	3. Collins, M. J. 1980; Lenski 1983; Mayer 1986; Schaffer and Purohit 1975.	**3. Attitude toward course content.**
	4. Sheridan 1982.	**4. Needs of nontraditional students.**
Student Background Variables (Non-Communication)	1. Lavin 1965; Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan 1972; Travers 1978; Overall and Marsh 1977.	**1. Various demographics.**
	2. Glass 1976.	**2. Socioeconomic status.**
	3. Brock 1976.	**3. Student heterogeneity in the classroom.**
Environmental Variables in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. McCroskey and McVetta 1978; Totusek 1978.	**1. Room arrangement.**
	2. Rozema 1985.	**2. Class size.**
	3. Hughey and Harper 1983; Meyer 1989.	**3. Importance of class "climate."**
	4. Hugenberg 1983.	**4. Differences between students' expectations in public vs. private schools.**
Environmental Variables (Non-Communication)	1. Goldman et al. 1975; Brock 1976; Irion 1976.	**1. Voice amplification in large lecture and class size.**
Instructional Models in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Gibson et al. 1985.	**1. Degree to which courses tend to be interpersonal, small group, public speaking, or hybrid in U.S.**
	2. Rubin 1983.	**2. Presentation of several models.**
	3. Lewis 1989; Seiler 1983, 1989; Taylor 1989; Yerby Buerkel-Rothfuss 1989.	**3. Personalized System of Instruction (PSI).**
	4. Gray et al. 1989.	**4. PSI and Structured Model of Competency-based Instruction (SMCI).**
	5. Kneupper and Williams 1983.	**5. Students' perceived achievements in public speaking and basic "blend" courses.**
	6. Haynes 1985.	**6. Orality-based model of instruction (O-I-C).**
	7. Stacks and Stone 1984.	**7. Courses best-suited for the high communication apprehensive.**
	8. Babich 1985.	**8. Use of computer-assisted testing center.**
Instructional Models (Non-Communication)	1. Brock 1976; Goldman et al. 1975.	**1. Effectiveness of large lecture vs. small group or a mixture of both.**
	2. Juola 1976; Fisher et al. 1977; Morrill 1977.	**2. Video-autotutorial instruction.**
	3. Newhall 1978	**3. Self-paced instruction.**
	4. Goldman et al. 1975.	**4. Peer-evaluation.**
	5. Collins, M. J. 1980; Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Moore and Silverman 1980; Press 1979.	**5. Team-teaching.**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	6. Brock 1976; Overall and Marsh 1977.	**6. Use of graduate and undergraduate teaching assistants.**
	7. Sherman, Ruskin, and Semb 1982.	**7. Personalized System of Instruction (PSI).**
Course Content Variables in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Collins, A. 1980.	**1. Incorporation of speaking/writing into public speaking courses.**
	2. Moore 1979.	**2. Advocation of a focus on communication functions and related competencies.**
	3. Kully 1989.	**3. Integration of English & speech.**
	4. Bozik 1985.	**3. Argument for use of student journals.**
	5. Hess 1981.	**5. Argument for use of case studies for teaching small group communication.**
	6. Smitter 1989.	**6. Argument for use of plays and novels as case studies in the basic course.**
	7. Phelps 1989.	**7. Argument for inclusion of a unit on relationship termination.**
	8. Haskins 1989.	**8. Argument for inclusion of a unit on ethics.**
	9. Greene 1984.	**9. Requiring students to read public service announcements over public radio to reduce communication apprehension.**
	10. Morris 1987.	**10. Emphasis on public speaking as means of teaching critical thinking.**
	11. Bendtschneider and Trank 1988.	**11. Argument for use of student evaluations to assess course curriculum.**
	12. Saavedra 1989.	**12. Integrating minority perspectives.**
	13. Sloane 1989.	**13. Teaching argumentative writing and speaking.**
Course Content Variables (Non-communication)	1. Arger and Clinton 1986; Collins, M. J. 1980; Hotchkiss and Nellis 1988; Moore and Silverman 1980; Press 1979.	**1. Interdisciplinary "hybrid" courses.**
	2. Bard 1986; Madigan et al. 1987.	**2. Sequencing of essays to facilitate knowledge retention.**
	3. Krefetz 1979.	**3. Exploring research questions in the basic course.**
	4. Kline 1977; Lenski 1983; Morrill 1977; Senn 1977; Watkins 1982.	**4. Division of basic course into individual courses of concentration.**
Staffing in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Weaver 1985; Greenwood 1988; Hazeltine and Kahn 1988; Ross and Lahar 1988.	**1. Use of undergraduates as peer-evaluators.**
	2. Yerby, Buerkel-Rothfuss, and Gray 1988; Buerkel-Rothfuss, Yerby, and Gray 1988.	**2. Characteristics of undergraduate teaching assistants (UTAs) and their relationship to student satisfaction, attitude, and perceptions.**

TABLE 1 (continued)

	3. Yerby et al. 1988, Morlan 1983; Crawford 1983, 1984	**3. Use of UTAs as group facilitators.**
	4. Buerkel-Rothfuss et al. 1988	**4. Degree to which UTA self-perceptions match evaluations provided by instructors.**
	5. German 1989; Pier 1989; Robinson 1989	**5. Minority faculty issues.**
Staffing in the Introductory Course (Non-Communication	1. Irion 1976; Kline 1977	**1. Occurrence of higher vs. lower instructor ranks.**
	2. Goldman et al. 1975; Gould 1984	**2. Using informal "group leader" as a form of peer instruction.**
Grading issues in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Rolls 1981	**1. Contrast of analytical with trait and holistic approaches to grading journals.**
	2. Williamson and Pier 1985	**2. Degree to which status of instructor correlates with grades given.**
	3. Foster, Smilowitz, and Foster 1988	**3. Student perceptions of the meaning of grades.**
Grading Issues (Noncommunication)	1. Goldman et al. 1975	**1. Use of peer evaluation.**
	2. Newhall 1978	**2. Argument for allowing students to repeat assignments for improved grade.**
	3. Madigan et al. 1987	**3. Grading for grammar vs. content.**
Evaluative Methods in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Hugenberg 1988; Morlan 1963; Owens 1988; Seiler 1988, Trank 1988	**1. Methods for evaluating the basic course.**
	2. Jones 1988	**2. Using the small group for speech evaluation.**
	3. Yoder and Dawson 1988	**3. Student vs. teacher evaluations of public speaking behavior.**
	4. La Lumia 1988	**4. Evaluation in the basic course.**
Evaluative Methods (Noncommunication)	1. Overall and Marsh 1977; Tobias 1988	**1. Relationship between student evaluations and instructor improvement.**
	2. Lamal 1979	**2. Measuring instructor attitudes toward students.**
	3. Juola 1976	**3. Use of evaluations to determine student instructional preferences.**
	4. Irion 1976	**4. Objective vs. essay tests.**
	5. Morrill 1977	**5. Use of frequent tests over less material.**
Administrative Variables in the Basic Speech Communication Course	1. Buerkel-Rothfuss 1990	**1. Test-out procedure for basic course requirements.**
	2. Weaver 1976; Trank 1988; Wright 1988	**2. Variables associated with directing the basic course.**
	3. Schliessmann 1988	**3. Administration of the basic course.**

Trying to synthesize the variables just discussed into a single theoretical framework for future investigation is an impossible task. The potential relationships for research consideration, while intriguing, are not easily organized and clearly exceed the limitations of any single model of basic course instruction. Nevertheless, basic course variables that have received little consideration in the communication literature (i.e., interdisciplinary team-teaching, instructor peer-evaluation, instructor attitude toward students, etc.) do warrant attention under some theoretical perspective. Similarly, the sheer numbers of variables investigated seem to suggest unlimited new hypotheses that might begin to address the need for systematic research. The value of the task seems apparent.

Our recommendation for a starting point is the identification of several theoretical bases from which future research might develop. On particular, we recommend consideration of perspectives from organizational communication, because so much of the activity involved with directing, teaching, and learning in the basic course is tied to the department and school organizational environments. Thus, many of the variables in Table 1 might become more logically connected using such a contextual framework.

The following section of the paper offers several such perspectives. Naturally, the discussion of each perspective is brief and meant to provide suggestions only. Many more variables and hypotheses are possible within each perspective than the scope of this essay.

THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

It requires very little imagination to envision the basic course as part of a hierarchical system that could be considered an "organization." Certainly, the university or college is one form of organization. In many cases, the very elaborate staff (department chair, faculty, basic curse director, assistant basic course director(s), instructors/adjunct faculty, graduate teaching assistants, undergraduate teaching assistants, students, etc.) associated with a specific multi-section course is its own organization. Research which focuses on the number of subordinates who report to a given supervisor, the "height" of the organizational hierarchy, and other structural variables (e.g., formal and informal communication channels, networks, etc.) could be applicable to studies of the basic course. Nor is it difficult to imagine a multi-section basic course program as a rule-based "culture," amenable to some of the approaches used to study other cultures and organizations. Basic course staff members share "horror stories" as a way to establish their identities as instructors, use nonverbal "markers" to identify their territories, create a common language, and develop patterned expectations for each other. Given the similarities between many basic courses and organizations, perspectives such as Theory Z/Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), rules theory, Blake and Mouton's managerial grid (1964), Ouchi's organization types (1981), Schein's internal integration model (1985), network analysis (Albrecht and Adelman, 1987), social support analysis (Albrecht and Adelman, 1987), and interpretative perspectives (Putnam and Pacanowsky, 1983) all offer potential resources for basic course researchers.

Theory X/Theory Y

A somewhat aging but still useful theoretical distinction was made by McGregor (1960) in his description of Theory X (traditional model of organizational communication) and Theory Y (the human relations model), which refers to assumptions that managers make about their employees. According to Theory X, people are generally unmotivated and willing to settle for the least possible challenge. Theory X managers use strategies such as threats, punishment, and monetary rewards to keep employees in line. Theory Y managers, on the other hand, view employees as ambitious and capable of participating in organizational decision-making. Work is seen as natural and enjoyable with success bring its own reward.

Recognizing the assumptions made by faculty, basic course directors, GTAs and others in the basic course hierarchy using these "theories" may lead to interesting research questions. Perhaps a content analysis of course syllabi would predict which theory basic course directors hold, given the assumption that one's attitude toward students would predict pedagogical choices? If samples of both Theory X and Theory Y basic course directors could be identified, studies could be developed which focus on many of the variables from Table 1: student variables (e.g., motivation, communication competence, attitudes toward the course and subject matter, academic background, gender, and preferred teaching styles), content variables (e.g., type of course, units covered in the course, assignments tied to the course syllabus), and instructor variables (e.g., attitude toward students and course content, communication ability, academic rank, credibility, power). Similarly, it might be enlightening to compare theories used by other faculty (which would influence their expectations for how the basic course is structured) with the theory used by the basic course director. Perhaps poor matchups between these two world views explain difficulties basic course directors encounter when they fail to meet departmental expectations for the basic course? Perhaps basic course directors who use Theory Y find it frustrating to administer basic courses that are highly prescribed and rigidly designed because of the implied Theory X aspects of those courses?

The focus of the research also could be directed at instructors and/or GTAs within one basic course program. Do instructors in this course view students as being in class to learn and grow? Or are they suspicious that their students are there because it is a required course? Instructors who view students from Theory X might highlight tests and grades as a way to control students in the classroom. Conversely, instructors who tend to believe in Theory Y might highlight tests and grades as a way to control students in the classroom. Conversely, instructors who tend to believe in Theory Y might allow more participative decision-making in the classroom and might encourage more class participation. An investigation that categorizes instructors by these perceptions and then compares their classrooms, their syllabi, their communication strategies, their teaching styles, and various effects on student attitudes and learning in those sections may yield useful information.

Understanding the linkage between basic course director viewpoint and various GTA variables (including their tendency to use Theory X/Y), might help researchers predict working relationships that will and will not be effective. Similarly, recognizing viewpoints held by GTAs may help basic course directors better train and supervise individuals within a given program. Knowing when and how predispositions conflict with course philosophy will aid basic course directors in anticipating problems.

Organizational Rules

Closely related to the notion of Theory X/Y is the assumption that how an instructor (or basic course director) views his or her and the role of students in the class may be evident from the rules created for that class. Rules theory calls for the identification of prescriptions that guide (but do not always ensure) behavior in the classroom. Some rules are implicit and followed without discussion or even conscious knowledge; others are explicit and may be open for discussion. Some rules are negotiable and others are not. In all cases, rules are prescriptions for how people "should" behave but cannot guarantee that those people will, indeed, behave in a way that complies with the rule. The degree to which the behavior is observable and consequences of rule following (or violating) influence the predictive power of this construct.

Certainly the course syllabus sets up a framework for classroom interaction and course completion. Perhaps an instructor requires attendance or established a late paper policy or allows rewrites for certain papers; all of these examples constitute one type of rule. Similarly, rules for classroom interaction develop: Do students interact spontaneously or is it required to raise hands? To what degree may students critique each other's work – and each other's communication abilities? To what degree may they provide feedback to the instructor about his/her communication skills? What are the sanctions for not reading prior to attending class? What are the rewards for being prepared? To what degree are the rules open for negotiation? How do students learn the rules? Does knowing the rules result in better performance and higher satisfaction for students? If so, which types of rules are most implicated in this relationship?

Perhaps, classifying basic courses by "type" using some sort of rule-based coding scheme could provide a variable that would be of value to basic course researchers. Are rigidly-defined basic courses qualitatively different than courses that evolve through group negotiation? In what ways? In what ways are rule structures and rule-following related to class cohesion and climate? Is there a "type" of rule structure that leads to maximal learning in basic speech communication courses? Certainly the degree to which instructors make rules known and the degree to which students follow established rules are ways to differentiate sections of the basic course. Consequences for rule violation also serve to differentiate basic courses. The adaptability of rules might be tied to instructor variables (power, status, credibility, academic rank, etc.) and to student variables (attitudes, participation, involvement, etc.) and effects of the course (on students' attitudes, communication abilities, decision-making skills, etc.). Perhaps a rigidly defined course results in lower student motivation than a more flexible course? Or perhaps a course in which rules are primarily explicit creates a more "safe" and comfortable environment for risk-taking than one in which the rules seem uncertain and changing? Perhaps lack of attention to rules at the beginning of the course leads to more dogmatic behavior from instructors later in the term? All of these are possible questions framed from within a rules-based perspective.

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

Blake and Mouton's model (1964) is based on the need for balance between concern for people and concern for getting the job done. From their perspective, managers who are able to balance interpersonal needs with task needs are likely to be most effective.

Again, it would be possible to frame a study that would look either at basic course directors across all basic courses or instructors/GTAs across a multi-section course at one institution. Characterizing those individuals according to task and maintenance messages and strategies might serve as a variable for investigating GTA performance, learning as a result of training provided by that basic course director, attitudes toward teaching, attitudes toward students, and student performance and satisfaction. Identification of a tendency toward one or the other also might serve as a way to screen possible applicants for GTA and/or UTA positions within a given course, if the data do, indeed, substantiate the hypothesis that a balanced perspective will yield the best results in the basic course context. Investigations of conflicts that emerge as task-oriented basic course directors attempt to work with maintenance-oriented GTAs (or vice versa) might yield interesting suggestions for managing (or avoiding) such conflict.

Ouchi's Organization Types

Yet another model for contrasting organizations, developed by Ouchi (1981), deals with the "culture" that evolves and changes as the organization grows. Type A organizations are considered to be typical of most American organizations: characterized by individual independence, responsibility, and specialization. People in the organization advance through their own initiative and creativity. In Type J organizations, typical of those in Japan, employees anticipate lifetime employment, participate in consensual decision-making and collective responsibility, and follow nonspecialized career paths. Everyone benefits from the labors of their fellow workers.

Because of the many common goals and needs associated both with graduate school and with teaching multi-section basic courses, it may be the case that some basic course "cultures" have abandoned some of the Type A characteristics in favor of what Ouchi calls Type Z organizations. Researchers might investigate relationships between the leadership style of the basic course director, the "culture" of the basic course organization, and various outcome and satisfaction variables for GTAs and students enrolled in the courses. Certainly, identification of culture variables may serve useful in eventual categorization of basic course hierarchies. Furthermore, identifying the rules and rituals for entering the culture may help basic course directors better socialize new GTAs for their roles, especially in departments in which GTAs teach the same courses for more than one year and, thus become "mentors" to the newcomers. Certainly, recognizing the variables that help new GTAs or instructors "identify" with the organization would allow basic course directors to more effectively manage the transition from undergraduate student to GTA.

Other variables of interest might be conflicts between individual GTA needs and needs identified by the basic course director, interpersonal and communication abilities, administrative style, leadership, mentoring, and communication between and within subgroups. If certain aspects of Type Z organizations improve relationships, it might be possible to incorporate more of those elements into a program.

Schein's Internal Integration Model

In a greatly expanded view of the organization as a culture, Schein (1985) described many of the functions of culture in organizations. One model which might have particular applicability to the basic course is his model of internal integration of organizational members. Six sets of variables comprise this model: 1) common language and conceptual categories; 2) group boundaries and criteria for inclusion and exclusion; 3) power and status; 4) intimacy, friendship, and love; 5) rewards and punishments; and 6) ideology and "religion." Any or all of these components could be investigated relative to how culture develops among GTAs in a multi-section program and the functions that culture provides for the development and maintenance of the basic course. Variables might include the jargon of training, strategies used by the basic course director and others to build group cohesion, verbal and nonverbal indicators of boundaries and coalitions, messages that convey power/status, roles that individuals play in the system/culture, degree of interconnectedness among individuals, strategies used by the basic course instructors, either as a whole or as subsets of the whole.

Network/Social Support Perspectives

Information flow studies which examine the hierarchy at various institutions and the ways in which messages move through the system might add insight into desirable models for basic course administrators. Both the formal, hierarchical and the more informal social networks (Albrecht and Adelman 1987; Burt and Minor 1983) might be of interest to basic course researchers. Similarly, it would be possible to examine effects on students and instructors from various "types" of information hierarchies of various social networks. A comparison among institutions using degree of interconnectedness of faculty, basic course director, department chair/head, GTAs, UTAs, interns, and students in the basic course might help basic course directors better train and supervise the GTAs or instructors working in their coursees (see, for example, McCallister and Fischer, 1983). Similarly, student learning and satisfaction may be maximized in some networks and minimized in others, based on availability and accuracy of information, support provided to instructors teaching the sections, and relative position of the basic course director in the organization hierarchy.

Interpretive Approaches

Thus far, the approaches discussed tend to focus on systems, relationships, actions, structure, and environment. They tend also to focus on quantitative research methodologies. Basic course researchers also might examine the basic course organization as "a social construction existing in an expressive relationship to its context" (Smircich, 227). In other words, research questions might address ways in which basic course administrators strategically manage the system of meaning that constitutes the basic course, and they might do so by incorporating qualitative research methods. How do basic course directors influence the ways in which instructors in that course create their perceptions of the course? What metaphors develop in a given program that define (and potentially limit) that program? How do basic course directors negotiate shared meanings with GTAs? How do GTAs negotiate shared meanings with their students? What symbols tend to define the nature of the basic course program for the people in it? How are these symbols interpreted and to what degree do they influence the successfulness of the basic course program? To what degree to GTAs view themselves as a collectivity and what symbols do they use to reinforce that view? These and many other questions could be posed to help basic course researchers better understand the nature of the basic course environment.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The frameworks just discussed do not begin to exhaust the many approaches that might be used to generate research questions about the basic course in speech communication. Many other theoretical perspectives from management, leadership, systems theory, organizational socialization, administrative behavior, industrial psychology and so on may be called upon as theoretical bases for basic course research. What was intended was to show the vast untapped store of resources available for faculty and administrators interested in investigating the basic course in speech communication and the many provocative questions that might be answered from these various perspectives. Rather than limit our investigations to the traditional variables associated with education (learning styles, teaching styles, class environment, etc.), it would be advantageous to begin utilizing variables from other communication contests, as well as from other disciplines outside of speech communication. Our research agenda for the 1990s must reach across contextual boundaries and try for a more holistic, generalizable, approach. In addition, collaborative efforts between speech communication researchers and basic course researchers outside of our field will add both to our theoretical and pragmatic progress in understanding and improving the all-important basic course.

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The Basic Course at U. S. Colleges and Universities: V

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This is the fifth investigation of the basic course in speech communication that was originally begun in 1968 by members of the Undergraduate Speech Instruction Interest Group of the Speech Association of America. The study was repeated in 1974, 1980, and 1985. Each of these studies gathered and reported information for educators who have interests in instructional practices in the basic course in speech communication (Warnemunde, 1986; Hiemstra & Staton-Spicer, 1983; Seiler, 1983; Pearson, Nelson & Sorenson, 1981). When the initial study was conducted the investigators decided that subsequent studies at approximate five-year intervals would provide useful information on trends in instructional practices, course content and materials, staffing patterns, and administrative support. Such information is valuable for speech communication faculty members, basic course directors, department chairpersons, and college-level administrators.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study, conducted in 1988, was similar to that of the previous investigations: We attempted to determine the nature of the basic course in speech as it is taught now, and to identify any trends or changes that appear to be present. Specifically, we sought information on course objectives, course content, instructional materials, instructional and testing procedures, curriculum and organizational considerations, enrollment, staffing, and institutional support for the course.

In the preceding studies, we defined the basic course "as that course either required or recommended for a significant number of undergraduates; that course which the department has, or would recommend as a requirement for all or most undergraduates." As a result of suggestions from scholars in the field, in this study we defined the basic course as "that course which provides the fundamental knowledge for all other speech courses. It may be a course which is mainly public speaking, interpersonal, or some other combination of speech communication variables. It teaches the fundamentals of speech communication and is the course which the department has, or would recommend as a requirement for all or most undergraduates." The modest change in definition provides a more accurate description of the course, as it would be likely to have only modest effects on the results of this research.

PROCEDURES

The present study began with the instrument reported in the 1985 version of the survey. Some items were eliminated, and others were revised or reworded. The Basic Course Committee of SCA was asked to identify areas of interest and provide any suggestions for additions, changes or deletions in items included in the previous study. We also contacted the SCA national office for their advice in modifying or adding items to the questionnaire. Finally, we contacted several prominent scholars in communication research and solicited their suggestions about modifications in the instrument.

The final form of the questionnaire consisted of 57 items, 50 of which could be answered by categorical response. The remaining seven items asked for information about textbooks, major problems encountered in instruction, and innnovative approaches or techniques that teachers employ in their basic course. Persons completing the questionnaire were also asked to send a copy of their course syllabus.

The questionnaires were mailed in August 1988 to 1532 schools and colleges from the mailing list provided by the SCA. This list included junior and community colleges, as well as senior colleges in the United States. In 1985, the SCA mailing list consisted of 2,078 schools, It is unclear why the list has diminished so substantially in the five-year period. No effort was made to recontact those schools which did not answer the initial mailing. A total of 431 schools responded to the survey. With 423 returned and usable questionnaires, this is smaller than the number of schools responding to previous surveys, but the response rate of 28% is exactly the same percentage as the response rate reported in 1985.

Thirty-seven respondent institutions indicated that they offer more than one basic course at their institutions. These 37 questionnaires (about 10% of the total responding institutions) were withheld from the general analysis, and were tabulated separately. Those data are reported separately.

The data in the present report are grouped into four main categories. Under the heading, "Demographic Data," We have included information about the size of schools responding to the questionnaire, the type of school, the number of sections offered per term, and the students who are enrolled in the basic course. This section includes, also, information about the credit hours given for the course, and the percentage of total departmental credit hours generated by the basic course. We have included information about apparent trends in enrollment and growth rate of the course relative to the department and the institution.

In our second category, which we term "Orientations," we have compared information from this study to previous studies exploring the general orientation of the basic course. We have included answers to such questions as "Is there any trend toward the increased teaching of basic public speaking skills in the basic course?" in the section.

In the third section, "Instructional Methods, " we have included information basic course directors may find helpful. Such matters as the number of sections offered and questions like "Do your students perform assignments which are videotaped and played back to them?" are included.

"Administrative Concerns," our final category, includes such matters as faculty morale, staffing patterns, other departments or colleges that offer competing courses, class size, and financial support of the basic course by upper level administrators.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

The demographic base for this investigation was similar to earlier investigations, both in the size of schools responding and the kinds of institutions returning questionnaires.

Schools

Distribution of the institutions responding to this investigation is slightly different from the distribution of schools which participated in earlier studies. Sixty-five percent were state supported, 20% were church affiliated, and 12% were privately funded. There are approximately 8% more state supported institutions in this study than in the last tow investigations. Universities made up 41% of the responding institutions, 26% were classified as colleges, and 30% of the schools responding to the questionnaire were community colleges.

Sections

Of the schools responding to this survey, slightly over one-third (36%) offered fewer than five sections of the basic course per term. Twenty-six percent of the schools offer 6-10 sections per term, 20% have 11-19 sections each time the course is offered, and slightly over 14% offer over 20 sections per term. Nine percent of the schools enroll more than 30 students in each section of the course, while only 5% have enrollments of 17 students or fewer each term.

Two findings are especially interesting. First, fewer sections of the basic course are being offered in reporting institutions than in earlier studies. This may or may not be a function of the SCA group which received the mailing. But, with the reduction in the number of sections offered per term we have a clear indication of increased class size. This may signal pressure to increase total enrollments, increase the student load of teachers, and reduce the interactive nature of the course. The "small class size" phenomenon of the basic course appears to be on the wane as departments enroll more students in each section of the course.

Student Population

Primary enrollment in the course continues to be freshmen and sophomores. Freshmen comprise 49% of the total students. This is a significant shift from earlier studies when freshman and sophomore enrollment made up approximately 57% of total enrollment; now that figure has increased to 83% of the course enrollment. This finding may reflect an increased sensitivity to the value of public speaking training earlier in a student's academic study. It may also suggest a general tightening of standards, prerequisite expectations, etc., in responding institutions. For example, there may be a strong emphasis upon Freshman students completing first-year sequence courses during the first year.

Academic Calendar

The vast majority (81%) of the schools offer the course for three semester hours. Six percent have a two-credit course, another 6% give four credit-hours, and 5% offer a five-hour credit course.

Respondents indicated that the basic course has a significant role in the credit-hour generation of the responding departments. The basic course accounting for some 45% of the total credit hours taught by those departments.

Enrollment Trends

The overall department enrollment trend is either steady or increasing in 92% of reporting schools. This finding is identical to reports in the 1985 study. In 1985, we reported that the basic course appeared to be more vulnerable to negative enrollment trends.. During this reporting period, basic course enrollment decreased in only 1% of the schools. In the basic course we found that only half as many departments reported a decrease in enrollment as their institutions experienced. And 21% of the basic courses reported enrollment increases in excess of twenty percent while only 7% of the institutions had enrollment increases of that magnitude.

Thus it appears that basic course enrollment is more resistant to downward enrollment pressures and is outstripping institutional increases. The course is in demand and is growing at a more rapid rate than overall institutional enrollment in this reporting period (1983-1988).

ORIENTATION TOWARD THE BASIC COURSE

One of the most important and interesting features of this longitudinal study of the basic course has been the focus upon the basic course orientations of responding institutions. The basic course appears to mirror trends within the discipline and reflects the considered thought of scholars and teachers throughout the nation. Thus, to identify the major thrust of the basic course is to highlight the development of our discipline.

Table 1 shows the basic course orientation of schools responding to this study since its inception twenty-one years ago.

Table 1
Percent of Schools Reporting Specific Orientation to the Basic Course

Orientation	1968	1974	1980	1984	1988
Public Sp	54.5%	21.3%	51.3%	54%	56%
Fundamentals	21.3%	12.8%			
Combination			40.3%	34%	25%
Multiple	13.2%	39.4%			
Comm Theory			2.5%	4%	4%
Interpers			4.7%	6%	4%
Other	2.2%	1.3%	.5%	2%	9%

In the years since the study was begun, the Public Speaking orientation has maintained its position of dominance and, in this study, it has become the orientation of choice of more schools (56%) than in any previous investigation. The Blend or "Hybrid" orientation is the choice of 25% of the responding schools, a decrease of 9% in the five year period. This decrease in the hybrid orientation accounts for the increased emphasis upon "other" orientations and the public speaking emphasis.

In the years since we initiated this investigation, there has been some change in the terminology used to describe orientations to the basic course. The most significant change occurred in 1980 when the terms "fundamentals" and "multiple" were dropped and the term "Blend" was introduced to describe course orientations.

There has been a fair consistency of response to the "blend" approach since it was introduced, although this orientation shows a 9% drop in popularity since the 1985 report. Public speaking continues to dominate all of the orientations with the percentage of schools using this approach increasing slightly in the latest period. The percentages of schools with an interpersonal or communication theory approach have decreased slightly in the last five years at schools indicating that they have one basic course.

Instructional Methods

The ways the course is taught, the use of the lecture/laboratory method, and the utilization of television in the classroom were areas of interest. We also attempted to discover the ratio of theory to performance in the basic course, if departments offered students the opportunity to "test out" of the basic course for credit, the number and kind of performances required of students, and how these activities were evaluated.

Sixty-four percent of the schools said that they utilized the lecture discussion method of instruction while 22% reported that the mode of teaching varied with the instructor. Although the number of students in each section of the basic course has increased substantially during the pat five years, 76% of the schools report that they do not use television for their lectures. However, video taped materials are used for instruction by many schools, with 41% using video tape to record classroom activities. Of those schools which use video recording, 47% tape record three or four assigned performance activities.

We asked how may performance activities are given during the basic course. Seventy-four percent of the respondents reported assigning fro three to six performance assignments, 13% assigned seven or eight performances, and only 2% of those responding had one or two performance activities. Performance assignments appear to be increasing although class size is also on the rise. Table 2 displays the balance of theory to performance revealed in the present study.

Table 2
Balance of Theory and Performance In the Basic Course

	20/80	40/60	60/40	More than 60/40
Responses	67	194	80	31
Percent	18	52.2	21.5	8.3%

First number represents theory, second number represents performance.

In this study we defined theory as "lecture, discussion, films, etc. and exams and their discussion," and we defined performance as "students are overtly involved in giving speeches, debating, conducting small group discussions, etc." Slightly over half of the respondents indicated they spent from 20-40% of their instructional time in activities we defined as theory. The data suggest that in the majority of classes the instructors spend approximately 40% of their time in theory activity and 60% in performance activities. The balance does vary but it is clear there is a strong emphasis on performance which arises from a substantial exploration of the theory concerned with public communication. Table 3 displays the relevant data.

Table 3
Comparative Weights of Oral and Written Activities in the Basic Course

Category	100/00	80/20	60/40	40/60	20/80
Responses	25	148	141	36	18
Percent	7.0	40	38	10	5.0

First number represents oral activity, and the second number represents written activity.

Mean Performance	=	61%	18.43
Mean Written	=	39%	18.06

We are interested in how students in the basic course are evaluated, by whom, and on what activities. Over 90% of the students make all of their presentations before the same audience. Interestingly, 58% of the reporting schools indicate that evaluation is a combination of peer and teacher feedback while 41% rely upon the instructor for the evaluation. This is a substantial change from the 1985 report, when 43% relied upon a combination of teacher and peer evaluation, and 54% of the respondents used the judgment of the instructor alone. It appears that instructors have given the student evaluation more weight in determining the effectiveness of class performances.

It appears that students are participating in classes which devote more time to performance than theory, they are making their presentations before the same class each time, and they are relying, to a large extent, upon a combination of peer and teacher evaluation for assessment of their performances. In grading student performances, 60% reported that they used a competency-based system for evaluation, 25% said they did not , and 14% said this approach was not applicable to their instructional situation.

We asked the question, "Are students given an oral evaluation of their performance activity?" Fifty-four percent of the respondents indicated they provide oral evaluation while 37% said the procedure varied with the instructor. When oral evaluation is offered, there is no clear evidence concerning how it is timed. Fewer than 1% of respondents said their teachers offered oral criticism after each speech. Forty-six percent gave evaluations after several speeches or at the close of the class period, while the remaining 45% of the respondents said the timing of the evaluations depended upon the instructor.

Apparently more teachers prefer the written evaluation method since 83% of the respondents said they offer evaluations of student performances in written form. Twenty-nine percent more of instructors answering this survey relied upon written criticism than oral evaluation. Less than 1% of the teachers do not offer written comments about performance.

Thus, although many teachers use both written and oral criticism, there is an interesting and clear preference for written versus oral evaluation. It is possible that the written form has a more "final" appearance and does not provide the opportunity for direct disputation by students. It is also possible that this finding reflects a logistical problem for teachers, created by the increased number of students in each of their sections, and an increased emphasis upon performance skills. Those teachers may not want – or be able – to take the class time necessary to provide oral evaluation and critique of classroom performance.

Logic would suggest that student success in the basic oral communication course would be judged, primarily, on an oral performance dimension. That supposition is supported by the results of the current study. Sixty-one percent of the course evaluation is determined by performance activities (speeches, etc.), while 39% of the course grade results from written activities (exams, term papers, and journals).

This finding, combined with clear evidence of teacher preference for written rather than oral evaluation, may seem alarming to speech teachers and administrators who believe in the benefits of instant knowledge of results, and in the value for all the students of positive and constructive speech criticism following each performance or two.

A continuing matter of concern is the content or the units contained in the basic course. In this survey, we asked respondents to indicate the six most important topics in the basic course. Their responses appear in Table 4. What is most interesting may be the units or topics which are not receiving emphasis by a large percentage of basic course respondents. With a performance orientation being the approach followed by over 81% of the institutions, one wonders why reasoning, audience analysis, outlining, supporting material, speech anxiety, language, and ethics appear so far down in the priority list. The reason may be tied to the logistics problem of hearing an increasing number of speeches by an increasing number students in courses that have not increased in contact hours.

Table 5 displays a more thorough breakdown of the course content, arranged by the course orientation. Key ranks are presented in parentheses for each of the topics within each emphasis area. Frequency appears in each column. The number of rating institutions in each category appears at the bottom of the column.

Table 4
Topics Receiving the Greatest Amount of Time in the Basic Course

Informative Speaking	81%	(1)
Persuasive	78%	(2)
Delivery	59%	(3)
Communication Theory	44%	(4)
Interpersonal	39%	(5)
Group Discussion	37%	(6)
Reasoning	32%	(7)
Audience Analysis	30%	(8.5)
Outlining	30%	(8.5)
Supporting Material	26%	(10)
Speech Anxiety	18%	(11)
Language	15%	(12)
Voice & Articulation	12%	(13)
Ethics	11%	(14)
Rhetorical Criticism	9%	(15)
Entertaining Speaking	5%	(16)
Manuscript Speaking	4%	(17.5)
Oral Interpretation	4%	(17.5)
Parliamentary Procedure	1%	(19)

Table 5
Topics Covered in the Basic Course, Arranged by Course Orientation

Topic	Pub Spkg	Interps	Writing & Spkg	EQ EM	Theory	Other
Informative	190(1)	0	9(1)	77(2)	0	20(1)
Persuasive	187(2)	1	8(3)	74(3)	1	15(5)
Entertainment	16	0	1	0	0	
Manuscript	10	0	2	0	0	1
G. Discussion	35	6	5(6)	70(4)	1	18(4)
Comm Theory	60	12(2)	9(1)	53(6)	7(1)	19(3)
Oral Interp	8	0	0	4	0	0
Voice & Artic	31	2	0	6	0	1
Listening	86(6)	12(2)	6(5)	58(5)	5(3)	14(6)
Interpersonal	20	14(1)	7(4)	78(1)	6(2)	20(1)
Delivery	150(3)	3	5(6)	44(7)	1	13(6)
Reasoning	88(4)	3	3	13(9)	1	8(10)
Rhet Criticism	27	0	0	0	26	3
Ethics	25	7(5)	0	5	25	1
Speech Anxiety	46	3	1	12(10)	1	3
Aud Analysis	75(8)	4(6)	3	18(8)	1	9(9)
Language	17	9(4)	2	9	4(4)	12(7)
Outlining	87(5)	2	2	8	0	10(8)
Support Material	78(7)	1	2	9	0	6
Other	8	2	1	5	1	4
N =	211	15	11	91	7	33

Key Ranks are in parentheses for each of the topics within the particular emphasis area.

Frequency appears in each column. The number rating institutions in each category is a bottom of the column.

These data allow for a more refined analysis of what goes on in the basic course. For example, although there are few group discussion course, per se, group discussion is rated as one of the six most important topics in 135 responding schools – fully one third of our responding sample.

Listening was ranked in the top six most important topics in all six of the orientation categories. Interpersonal communication was listed most frequently as one of the six most important topics in three different emphasis areas. Finally, communication theory was listed among the most important topics in every orientation category except public speaking.

As mentioned above, 37 responding institutions reported that they offer more than one basic course at their institutions. The data drawn from those questionnaires were tabulated separately. Table 6 displays the numbers of basic courses offered and the number of schools offering them. Table 7 shows the combinations of courses offered as the basic course "package" in those institutions.

Table 6
Number of Basic Courses Offered

Number Offered	Number of Mentions
2	21
3	12
4	3
5	2

When these multiple course listings are counted, public speaking is mentioned as part of the basic course package in 34 out or 37 cases. Interpersonal communication courses are listed as part of the set in 23 out of 37 cases. Small group communication courses are mentioned six out of 37 times, and equal emphasis courses are listed eight times.

Table 7
Combinations of Courses in Basic Course Package

Public speaking and equal emphasis	4
Public speaking and interpersonal	13
Public speaking, interpersonal, and small group	3
Public speaking, interpersonal, and mass	2
Public speaking, interpersonal, equal emphasis	1
Public speaking, interpersonal, and other	3
Public speaking, small group, and other	3
Public speaking and other	2
Public speaking, equal emphasis, and other	3
Interpersonal, equal emphasis, and other	1
Indeterminate from information given	2
	37

Ten respondents listed "other" courses, including a number that were specifically identified as mass communication courses. Interestingly, communication theory courses and joint speaking and writing courses were not listed as part of the basic course package at any of the 37 responding institutions in this sub-group.

This information shows that interpersonal communication courses are considered by these 37 respondents to be "on a par" with public speaking courses at many institutions, but they are not considered more important or more basic than public speaking courses. By implication, where a respondent listed only one basic course (there were 386 such respondents), the centrality of the course mentioned may be more significant than the data seem to indicate. For example, if a respondent willingly listed public speaking as the basic course, yet his or her department also offered multiple sections of a course called interpersonal communication, listing may indicate that, in the respondent's mind at least, public speaking is more basic than interpersonal communication.

Respondents were asked to rank their most frequently encountered instructional problems. The results, which appear in Table 8, have some similarities to problems reported in two previous studies but several items are new. Problems such as "finding and retaining quality part-time instructors," and "over-demand for the course" reinforce the finding that classes are larger and that instructors, in many cases are nonregular faculty. The basic course is popular, too popular, and the demand by students creates an entirely new set of problems for teachers at this level.

Table 8
Major Problems Reported in the Basic Course

	Number of schools reporting
Class size	74
Maintaining quality and consistency of instruction across sections	66
Finding and retaining quality part-time instructors	43
Achieving reliable standards in grading	38
Inadequate support budget	32
Over-demand for course	29
Poor or inadequate student preparation	25
Lack of time to cover course material	23
Selecting appropriate text	14
Student apathy and attitudes	12
Administrative logistics	11
Student apprehension	10

Table 9
Textbooks Used in the Basic Course

Text	Number of schools using
Stephen E. Lucas, *The Art of Public Speaking,* 3rd Ed., New York: Random House, 1989.	65
Douglas Ehninger, Bruce E. Gronbeck, Ray E. McKerrow, and Alan H. Monroe, *Principles and Types of Speech Communication,* 10th Ed., Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1986.	40
Michael Osborne and Suzanne Osborne, *Public Speaking,* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1988.	25
Judy Pearson and Paul Nelson, *Understanding and Sharing: An introduction to Speech Communication,* 4th Ed., Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Publishers, 1988.	25
Rudolph Verderber, *Communicate,* 5th Ed., Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1987.	15
Rudolph Verderber, *The Challenge of Public Speaking,* 7th Ed., Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1988	13
Ronald B. Adler and George Rodman, *Understanding Human Communication,* 3rd Ed., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1988.	12
Saundra Hybels and Richard Weaver, *Communicating Effectively,* 2nd Ed., New York: Random House, 1989.	11
Ronald B. Adler, and Neil Towne, *Looking Out, Looking In,* 5th Ed., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1987.	11
Hamilton Gregory, *Public Speaking for College and Career*	10

Teacher, administrators, and, certainly, publishers have a continuing interest in the selection of textbooks for the basic course. In each of our investigations, we have asked respondents to indicate which text is used in the basic course at their institution. The listing of the most popular texts has changed over time because of the issuance of new books or new edition The 10 most commonly used texts and the number of schools using them appears in Table 9.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONCERNS

With large enrollment and a considerable impact on the perception of departments, the basic course is important to the welfare of the department. Historically, it has made a substantial contribution to the credit-hour ration, and it employs a significant number of people. The extent of administrative support for instruction in the course, staffing patterns, and the training provided for those who teach in the course are matters of interest. The size of classes is important to those who believe it has an effect upon the quality of education and to the extent it affects instructor's morale. Our other concern was whether the basic course must compete with other academic units which also offer a course of instruction in oral communication.

Financial Support

Because the financial support of departments often is related to enrollments in the basic course, we asked respondents, "To what degree does the financial base of your department, and its offerings rest on the basic course?" Of the schools reporting only one basic course, 21% indicated that the basic course was essentially unrelated to the financial base of the department, 22% indicated that the course was related to departmental finances "to a small degree," 20% responded "to a medium degree," and 22% reported that the basic course was related to the financial base of the department "to a large degree." Five percent of respondents gave no answer to this items.

In the 1985 report, 56% of the respondents said that the basic course generated 26% of the department student credit hours given. In the present study, reporting the 1983-1988 period, we asked the open-ended question, "What percentage of total student credit hours taught by your department are generated by your basic course. The figure is startling when compared to the responses to this question in our 1985 survey. Eighty-one percent of the respondents answered this question. Their responses show that fully 44.7% of the student credit hours taught as generated by the basic course. This finding leaves no doubt about the economic significance of the basic course.

When we discussed enrollment trends, we noted that only one percent of the respondents said that their basic course enrollment was decreasing; 76% of the schools said that enrollment in their basic course was increasing while only 54% of the schools reported that overall department enrollment was increasing. This confirms findings of earlier studies which indicated that basic course enrollment was increasing more rapidly than departmental enrollment. We found also that basic course enrollment is expanding more rapidly than institutional enrollment. Seventy-two percent of the responding schools said their overall enrollment was increasing while the earlier reported increase in basic course enrollment was reported in 76% of the schools. The margin of increase for basic course enrollment has narrowed during the past five years. In our last report, 30% of the respondents said the basic course was growing more rapidly than institutional enrollment; this year the difference in only 4%. The global picture is that the basic course is outstripping the rest of the department in enrollment increases but is roughly similar to the increases in student population experienced by the school. There may be considerable support for the course at the institutional level, but some institutions may view the basic course as a "service" component and provide it with less administrative support than appropriate.

Staffing Patterns

We wanted to determine who provides the instruction for the basic course so we asked this question: "Who does the *bulk* of teaching in your basic course?" The answers were graduate assistants (8%); instructors (36%); assistant professors (25%); associate professors (17%); and professors (13%).

Just as was the case in the 1985 report, instructors and assistant professors carry the bulk of the teaching load. Over 69% of the instruction in the basic course is provided by junior faculty or graduate students, an increase over the percentage of instruction delivered by non-senior faculty reported in 1984.

We wanted to know whether departments which used graduate assistants for teaching in the basic course (8% of the total respondents) teach them how to do that by providing a course of instruction to those graduate students. Of those schools, 74% provided some form of training while 26% offered no preparation for their assistants. Of those schools which use teaching assistants for their basic course, only 48% give some course credit for the training they provide in preparation for teaching.

Another factor which is a major administrative concern is the attitude that faculty teaching the course hold toward the course itself. This may be a major indication of the morale of the faculty and their perception of classroom autonomy. Less than 1% of the respondents were generally satisfied with their basic course, a striking contrast with the 75% who reported general satisfaction with the course five years ago.

Sixty-one percent want minor revision while 14% are interested in major revisions. It is difficult to differentiate between *no change in the course and minor changes.* Few teachers in any course are *totally satisfied* with their instruction, so the differences between the results of this investigation in the area of instructor satisfaction may be only a matter of very slight differences rather than an abrupt shift in the way teachers perceive the thrust and content of the course.

We inquired about the extent of teacher autonomy in the classroom. Fifty-one percent said teachers had great teaching autonomy and 34% said their teachers had moderate autonomy in the classroom. Only 19% reported their teachers had little autonomy in determining the content and thrust of the course.

In answering the question, "It there a trend to give the individual instructor increased teaching autonomy?", 21% indicated they were giving the teacher more autonomy, 17% responded they were not providing more autonomy, and 62% reported no discernible trend.

In previous studies we have examined which other departments or divisions offer a basic course in speech. The results in this study are a marked departure from our findings in previous investigations. We found that in only 5% of the responding schools other divisions offered a basic course, and that when the course was offered it was taught in the College of Education. We did not explore the reasons why other divisions did not offer competing courses, but it is clear that the basic course in oral communication is considered to be in the province of the communication or speech department.

SUMMARY

The basic course continues to grow nationally at a rate that still is greater than the growth rate of either the parent institution or of the speech/communication department. The percentage of departments experiencing decreases in size of the basic course is miniscule, but the enrollment-per-section of the basic course has increased substantially while the number of sections offered per term has decreased.

This changing pattern results in increasing pressure upon teachers, who must work with larger numbers of students. The logistical problem of handling the increased load in a basically performance-oriented course may explain why such fundamental, but primarily cognitive concerns as reasoning, audience analysis, outlining, supporting material, speech anxiety and language, are so low on the list of topics receiving the greatest amount of time in the basic course. The basic course is under pressure to produce more with an increase in students and a decrease in the number of sections offered.

The course continues to be taught, primarily, by junior faculty and graduate teaching assistants – a continuation of a pattern reported in 1985. Most of the instructors believe the course needs some modification, and some of their major concerns are maintaining consistency across sections of the course, the size of the classes, the amount of time available for assignments, and support budget for the course.

The performance orientation, reported in all the previous studies, still tends to predominate. In the majority of cases, students make three to six presentations per term and these presentations are usually made before the same instructor evaluating the performance. But there is a tendency to use peer evaluation as a component in determining the effectiveness of the presentations.

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